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THE DEVELOPMENT OF APPROPRIATE INSTRUCTIONAL UNITS AND RELATED MATERIALS ON RACIAL AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN AMERICA. FINAL REPORT.

BY- GIBSON, JOHN S.
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A RESEARCH PROJECT WAS CONDUCTED AT TUFTS UNIVERSITY BETWEEN MARCH 1, 1965, AND SEPTEMBER 14, 1967, FOR THE PURPOSE OF DEVELOPING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND TEACHING STRATEGIES WHICH WOULD PROVIDE MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING ABOUT RACIAL AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY IN AMERICAN LIFE. TWO FUNDAMENTALS ARE WOVEN INTO THE DESIGN OF THESE MATERIALS--(1) COVERT AND OVERT BEHAVIORAL PATTERNS ARE LEARNED OR TAUGHT, RATHER THAN BEING INNATE, AND (2) DIVERSITY IN TERMS OF RACE, RELIGION, NATIONAL ORIGIN, APPEARANCE, AND BEHAVIOR IS ONE OF THE MOST POSITIVE ADVANTAGES OF AMERICAN LIFE. THE RESULTS OF THE PROJECT INCLUDE THE DEVELOPMENT OF LOWER GRADE AND UPPER GRADE UNITS ON RACE AND CULTURE IN AMERICAN LIFE, THE DEVELOPMENT OF SUGGESTED TEACHING STRATEGIES AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCE SECTIONS FOR TEACHERS USING THESE UNITS, AND THE PRESENTATION OF A FULL REPORT ON RECOMMENDED EVALUATION PROCEDURES AND INSTRUMENTS WITH RESPECT TO RACE AND CULTURE IN AMERICAN LIFE. (ES)

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FINAL REPORT

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The Development of Appropriate Instructional Units and Related Materials on Racial and Cultural Diversity in America

JOHN S. GIBSON

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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October, 1967

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
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John S. Gibson

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The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a contract with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs
Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

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B. John S. Gibson, "The Process Approach to Political Science," in Donald H. Riddle and Robert E. Cleary, Political Science in the Social Studies (Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 36th Yearbook, 1966, Chapter V)

Acknowledgments

A research and development project of the magnitude indicated by this report was possible only because many dedicated educators devoted long hours and a variety of talents to furthering democratic human relations through the process of education. As director of the project, it is a sincere privilege to acknowledge many of those who performed invaluable services in developing the instructional materials and teaching strategies on race and culture in American life set forth in this publication.

Lincoln Filene Center research assistants, Miss Astrid C. Anderson and Miss Jane B. Benson, had responsibilities for the lower and upper grade units respectively. As members of the Center's permanent staff, they were deeply involved in all phases of the development of the units. Miss Anderson has been associated with this project since its beginning in March, 1965, and provided a vital service during its first phase by identifying specific instructional and teaching needs at the elementary school level in the area of racial and cultural diversity in the United States.

Dr. Joseph C. Grannis of Teachers College, Columbia University, chaired the lower grade working party and wrote the content section of the lower grade unit (II - B). Dr. Helen J. Kenney of Northeastern University and her associates, especially Mrs. Barbara Harris, conducted the evaluation program of the project and wrote Section IV of this report.

The services of the members of the two working parties are gratefully acknowledged. The lower grade group included the following: Miss Helen Clark, Winchester (Massachusetts) school system; Miss Elsa Jaffe, Harvard Graduate School of Education; Mrs. Louise C. Smith, Harvard Graduate School of Education; Miss Melissa Tillman, New School for Children, Boston; and Mrs. Doreen Wilkinson, Lesley-Ellis School, Lesley College, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Members of the upper grade working party were as follows: Mrs. William D. Davidson, Lexington (Massachusetts) public schools; Miss Mary Lou Denning, Lowell (Massachusetts) public schools; Mrs. John Hilbert, Newton (Massachusetts) public schools; Mr. Frank Lyman, Lexington (Massachusetts) public schools; Mrs. Paul Reinhart, member of faculty and supervisor for social studies interns, Lesley College, Cambridge; and Mrs. Bryant Rollins, Hilltop Day Care Center, Roxbury, Massachusetts. Mrs. Hilbert, who spent her sabbatical leave from the Newton public schools with the Lincoln Filene Center in 1966-1967, coordinated much of the work of the upper grade group and taught the developing phases of the unit in eight different fifth-grade classes in the Greater Boston area in 1967. Mrs. Reinhart was primarily responsible for the writing of the American Indian subunit, and Miss Barbara Hafner, a fifth-grade teacher in the Medford (Massachusetts) public schools, was the author of the Declaration of Independence subunit.

The Center appreciates the splendid cooperation extended by the Newton, Lexington, Medford, Winchester, Brookline, and Lowell public school systems in making it possible to teach the units during 1967. The summer, 1967, Title III project (Brookline, Lexington, and Newton school systems) enabled parts of both units to be taught during the summer of 1967. Miss Ada McIntosh of Brookline and Mr. Charles Mitsakos of Chelmsford (Massachusetts) were particularly helpful in making this pilot teaching possible.

The summer, 1967, Title I project in Lowell provided an unusually fine opportunity for the teaching of the units. Miss Mary Lou Denning, Educational Director of the project, coordinated the relationship between the Center and Lowell, and she received the strong support of Mr. Patrick Mogan, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Lowell. The directors of the two summer "camps" at Lowell, Mr. Frank Finnerty and Mr. Charles Mellen, were most cooperative. Lower grade teachers in Lowell included Miss Lucinda Silk, Miss Rita O'Brien, and Miss Ellen O'Leary. Their aides were Miss Allison Crossley, Miss Diane Higson, and Miss Paula Mechalides. Upper grade teachers in Lowell were Mrs. Margaret Farrell, Mr. William Farrell, and Mr. Paul O'Loughlin. Their aides were Mr. Edward Mahoney, Mr. Dennis O'Dea, and Miss Mary Rouine.

As has always been the case with research and development projects undertaken by the Lincoln Filene Center, staff members have performed their tasks with a high degree of dedication and excellence. Professors Kvaraceus and Seasholes provided much intellectual guidance, and Mr. Wyman Holmes was invaluable in directing audio-visual services for the project.

Mrs. Ann C. Chalmers coordinated the processing of project working papers and directed the organization of the final report. Miss Miriam C. Berry edited all project papers and reports. Miss Sandra J. Saba, Miss Sandra R. Pasciuto, and Mrs. Rose Taitz typed the final report. Finally, the Center expresses its deep appreciation to those administration and faculty members of Tufts University who provided assistance in many ways and to the officers and members of the Board of Trustees of the Civic Education Foundation for their support and guidance of the Center.

John S. Gibson
Director

I. INTRODUCTION

This is the final report by the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, to the United States Office of Education on the Center's Cooperative Research Project entitled The Development of Appropriate Instructional Units and Related Materials on Racial and Cultural Diversity in America (Project No. OEC-1-7-062140-0256). The first phase of this project began on March 1, 1965, and was completed on April 30, 1966.[1] This present report is a full accounting of the research and development undertaken during the second phase of the project which began on September 15, 1966, and terminated on September 14, 1967. On August 30, 1967, the Lincoln Filene Center submitted a proposal to the United States Office of Education for continuation of this project. The contents of this report follow, for the most part, the specifications of the United States Office of Education for the organization of final reports of research projects supported by the Office. Since the main body of the report consists of the two instructional units on race and culture in American life, it has been necessary to deviate slightly from these specifications.

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[1] John S. Gibson and William C. Kvaraceus, The Development of Instructional Materials Pertaining to Race and Culture in America. Medford, Massachusetts: Trustees of Tufts College and the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs (Cooperative Research Project No. H-199), 1966. 350 pp. See ED 010029, ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

A. Problem, Background, and Related Research

1. The Problem

The central problem to which this project has addressed itself is to assist in meeting the need for instructional materials and teaching strategies which can provide more effective learning about racial and cultural diversity in American life. Reports on the first three phases of the Lincoln Filene Center's curriculum improvement project in this area have stressed this need and have identified research which indicates that instructional materials and teaching strategies in race relations have been markedly inadequate. This has been particularly true for the teaching-learning process at the K-6 level. Research clearly indicates that the ages between 5 and 12 are critical as far as the affective development of the child is concerned. It is therefore imperative that instructional materials and teaching strategies make every contribution they possibly can in the elementary school to assist young people to develop attitudes and values which will be supportive of democratic human relations in a society marked by its diversity.

It is true that in recent years, publishers of instructional materials for elementary school students have introduced visuals which reflect differences in skin color and which present some realities of inner-city life. However, research reveals that much more than pictures and photographs are needed to help young people to appreciate the richness of diversity and to realize the harm of stereotypic thinking and discriminatory behavior. The problem posed by the lack of innovative and challenging instructional materials and methods whereby teachers can more effectively and comfortably teach democratic human relations in the classroom therefore remains. The project set forth in this proposal seeks to respond to this need and to contribute toward a teaching-learning process for elementary school students designed to bring the ideals of democratic human relations closer to the realities of life and behavior in America.

2. Background

The Lincoln Filene Center has for years been deeply concerned about advancing the cause of democratic human relations through the process of education. This concern has been reflected in many of its programs, activities, and publications. The more immediate origins of the present project, however, stem from the Center's September, 1963, conference on Negro Self-Concept.[2] At that time, many conferees stressed the view that instructional materials in schools were grossly inadequate in coping realistically and even honestly with racial and cultural diversity in American life. They pointed out that one of the great needs of education in the United States was to develop tools for learning and teaching strategies, especially at the elementary school level, designed to help grade school students to have a better balanced picture of the racial and cultural differences which have influenced the growth of American life and which play such a vital and vibrant role in our contemporary society.

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[2] This conference was sponsored jointly by the United States Office of Education (Cooperative Research Project No. G-020) and by the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development (Grant No. 64203). A report of the conference was submitted to the two funding agencies in December, 1963, and was developed into a publication authored by Kvaraceus, Gibson, Patterson, Seasholes, and Grambs entitled Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965).

The Center responded to this need and, following extensive negotiations with the United States Office of Education, contracted with the Office to undertake an extended project concerned with the development of instructional materials on race and culture in American life for elementary school students. Dr. John S. Gibson, Director of the Lincoln Filene Center, and Dr. William C. Kvaraceus, Director of Youth Studies at the Center, served as co-directors of the first phase of the project (March 1, 1965, to April 30, 1966). Miss Astrid C. Anderson was appointed as the project's principal research assistant.

The objectives of the first phase of the project were as follows:

1. Identify basic principles of human behavior in intergroup relations and reasons why individuals, groups, and cultures differ.
2. Update a review of the treatment of racial and cultural diversity and the role of Negroes in existing K-6 instructional materials (readers, social studies texts, language

arts books, histories, etc.).

3. Determine, in consultation with historians and social scientists, the kinds of information and concepts about racial and cultural diversity and the Negro in American life which would be appropriate in elementary education.
4. Explore the development of sequences and units of instruction which utilize new materials and instructional innovations and deal with the subject of racial and cultural diversity.

The staff of the Lincoln Filene Center assigned to the project convened a small working conference of scholars and specialists in this field in March, 1965, to determine basic guidelines for pursuing these objectives.[3] Staff preparatory work continued during the spring of 1965, leading to a conference of historians and social scientists at the Center on June 18 and 19, 1965, which provided a basic sense of direction and specific recommendations for advancing the objectives of the project.[4]

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[3] In attendance were Messrs. Gibson, Kvaraceus, Seasholes, Holmes, and Miss Anderson of the Center staff as well as Professor Melvin Tumin of Princeton University and Professor Jean D. Grambs of the University of Maryland.

During the summer and fall of 1965, the Center staff began to organize two working parties to plan and develop pilot materials for student use. One group was organized for the "lower grades" (K-3), while the other was concerned with the "upper grades" (4-6). Some of the specialists mentioned above joined elementary school teachers in working in these groups in preparing provisional materials which were used in a number of schools during academic 1965-66. A description of these materials and student and teacher response to them were included in the Gibson-Kvaraceus report cited above. In the meantime, Miss Anderson undertook a broad survey of existing instructional materials for K-6 students (readers, social studies texts, etc.) so that the staff could appraise the messages these materials convey (or do not convey) to students. This survey, contained in the Gibson-Kvaraceus report, found that existing materials were quite inadequate in giving an honest and balanced account of racial and cultural diversity in American life, past and present.

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[4] In addition to Center staff members, the following specialists attended the June, 1965, conference: Mr. Larry Cuban of the Cardozo Project, Washington, D. C.; Dr. William D. Davidson, Chief Resident, In-patient Psychiatry, Veterans Administration Hospital, Minneapolis; Dr. Robert A. Feldmesser, Director of Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools, Dartmouth College; Dr. Jean D. Grambs, University of Maryland; Dr. Robert D. Hess, Chairman, Committee on Human Development, University of Chicago; Dr. Solon T. Kimball, Teachers College, Columbia University; Dr. Peter New, Graduate School of Public Health, University of Pittsburgh; and Dr. Charles A. Pinderhughes, Chief of Psychiatry Service, Veterans Administration Hospital, Boston.

Miss Anderson found that the textbooks were more guilty of omission than of commission in the treatment of diversity. Appendix A of this report is a statement by Miss Anderson of some of her findings and recommendations, which was published in Scholastic Teacher in February, 1967.

The Gibson-Kvaraceus report of April, 1966, completed the first phase of the project, and the Center submitted a new proposal in December, 1965, which sought additional funding to continue the project. Although the United States Office of Education approved the second proposal in the spring of 1966, funds were not available to carry on the project at the level recommended by the readers of the proposal and the Office. Following discussions with the Office, the Center agreed to continue the project, but at one-third the level of funding felt necessary to advance the objectives of the second phase.

As a result of a site visit to the Center by a United States Office team on May 2, 1966, and from conversations with officials at the Office, John S. Gibson, project director, agreed that the staff should give additional attention to evaluation of affective change of students engaged in the pilot use of materials produced by the project, effective teaching strategies used in the handling of project materials in the classroom, and finding means to help a number of school systems to use the materials on a provisional basis. It was agreed with the Office that the second phase of the project should run from September 15, 1966, through September 14, 1967, and that the Center should concentrate on preparing two units--one roughly at the second-grade level (the community) and the other at the fifth-grade level (United States history). The Center undertook the responsibility not only to develop units at these grade levels but also to provide affective evaluation data, to engage in actual classroom teaching, and to suggest teaching strategies which appear to be effective in maximizing the utility of the materials. This report contains the two units dealing with racial and cultural diversity within the context of the community and within the scope of United States history and also evaluative findings and recommendations concerning teaching strategies. Hopefully, the United States Office of Education will continue to support further research and development in the areas covered by this project.

The Lincoln Filene Center has received over a thousand requests from educators throughout the United States for progress reports and pilot materials developed under this project. Although the Center has been unable to respond fully, it has within the limits of its capacities sent various items associated with the project to those who have requested them. It might also be added that members of the Center staff have addressed many groups of educators and staff members of several school systems and state departments of education on the objectives, procedures, and provisional findings of the project. In an address to more than 600 delegates to the National Education Association's Conference on the Treatment of Minorities in Textbooks (Washington, D. C., February 9, 1967), Dr. Gibson spoke on the subject, "Learning Materials and Minorities: What Medium and What Message?" This paper, which may be obtained at the NEA's Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036), placed the work of the project within the context of childhood affective learning. It also advanced guidelines for publication and distribution of instructional materials concerned with race and culture in American life.

Publications by Dr. Gibson in the past year have addressed themselves to this project and also to behavioral goals in education (see New Frontiers in the Social Studies, Volumes I and II. New York: Citation-Scholastic Press, 1967). Poverty, Education, and Race Relations by Messrs. Kvaraceus, Gibson, and Curtin (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967) is designed to help teachers to handle issues of race and culture in the classroom, as is "Education and Race Relations," a series of twenty-eight 45-minute television programs (on videotape and kinescope film). This series was funded under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and is available at the departments of education of the nine northeastern states. The Center has also integrated many of the concepts and findings of the project in its 1965 and 1966 NDEA Institutes for Teachers of Disadvantaged Youth. These Institutes, which were held at the Center and in the nine northeastern states, were directed by Dr. Kvaraceus.

3. Related Research

The project staff not only has engaged in basic research in developing the instructional units and teaching strategies contained in this report but also has drawn heavily upon research undertaken by many other specialists in the field of race relations. The studies, reports, and monographs listed below provide a wealth of information on social science education, race relations, intergroup learning, and the role of instructional materials in the teaching and learning about democratic human relations. Section V of this report contains recommendations of titles which may be effectively used in the teaching of the two units on race and culture for elementary school students.

a. Social Science Education: Bernard Berelson and Gary A. Steiner's Human Behavior: An Inventory of Scientific Findings (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964) contains many significant reports and findings in the social sciences. Richard Jones's An Application of Psychoanalysis to Education (Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1960) relates psychiatric research to changes of attitudes of ethnic tolerance in an educational environment. Bruce Joyce's Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965) deals with applying the methodology of the social sciences to the education of elementary school students. See also Fred N. Kerlinger's Foundations of Behavioral Research (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1965). Although there are many other research studies and other publications in the social sciences which have direct relevance to the research and development covered in this report, the above titles have been particularly valuable in incorporating social science research into the methodology and content implicit and explicit in the two units.

b. Race Relations: The following titles offer much substance in the theory and realities of race relations in the United States: "The Negro American" in Daedalus, Fall, 1965, and Winter, 1966 (Volume 94, No. 4 and 95, No. 1); Minnie Koblitz, The American Negro in Children's Literature: A Bibliography (New York: The Center for Urban Education, 1967); Kvaraceus, Gibson, Patterson, Seasholes, and Grambs, Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1965); Kvaraceus, Gibson, and Curtin, Poverty, Education, and Race Relations (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967); Elizabeth Miller, The Negro in America: A Bibliography (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1966); and Peter Rose, They and We: Racial and Ethnic Relations in the United States (New York: Random House, 1964).

c. Children's Intergroup Learning: Much research in recent years has focused upon the intergroup socialization of the child. This research clearly indicates that values and attitudes of all children toward visible racial differences develop at a very early age. It points to the necessity of schools shaping sound educational practices in democratic human relations as early in the academic career of the child as possible. Research which the project has drawn upon in this area essential to the development of instructional materials and teaching strategies is as follows: Kenneth Clark, Prejudice and Your Child (Boston: Beacon Press, 1963, 2nd edition); Mary Ellen Goodman, Race Awareness in Young Children (Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press, Inc., 1952); Abram Kardiner and Lionel Ovesey, The Mark of Oppression:

Explorations in the Personality of the American Negro (Cleveland: World Publishing Company, 1962); Alice Miel and Edwin Kiester, The Shortchanged Children of Suburbia (New York: The American Jewish Committee, 1967); A. Harry Passow (ed.), Education in Depressed Areas (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963); Judith D. R. Porter, Racial Concept Formation in Pre-School Children (Ithaca: Cornell University Press, 1961); Celia Stendler and William Martin, Intergroup Education in Kindergarten-Primary Grades (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953); Hilda Taba, Intergroup Education in Public Schools (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1952); R. Murray Thomas, Social Differences in the Classroom (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1965); and Trager and Yarrow, They Learn What They Live: Prejudice in Young Children (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1952).

d. Instructional Materials and Democratic Human Relations: The following titles are studies and surveys of how elementary school instructional materials deal or do not deal with racial and cultural diversity in the United States: Loretta Golden, The Treatment of Minority Groups in Primary Social Studies (Palo Alto, California: Stanford University, Doctoral Dissertation, 1965); Hearings on Books for Schools and the Treatment of Minorities before the Ad Hoc Subcommittee on De Facto School Segregation, Committee on Education and Labor, United States House of Representatives, August and September, 1966; Nancy Larrick, "The All-White World of Children's Books" in

Saturday Review, September 11, 1965; Sylvia Meek, "Selection and Use of Children's Literature in Teaching Intergroup Relations" in Journal of Intergroup Relations, 1962; and Irving Sloan, The Negro in American History Textbooks (Chicago: American Federation of Teachers, 1966).

B. Objectives of the Project

The central aim of this project has been to prepare instructional materials and to devise teaching strategies on race and culture in America at the elementary school level which are designed to advance democratic human relations for students and teachers alike. These materials and strategies have been designed to help to promote a positive self- and group concept among elementary school children and to assist in reducing stereotypic thinking, prejudicial covert behavior, and discriminatory overt behavior as well.

Clearly, these are broad and general objectives. The project's staff believes that students and teachers using project materials will advance toward these goals, but it is hardly its expectation that these objectives will be attained in any absolute sense. It is, however, far better to have such goals than to be engaged in a project which is devoid of ideals and behavioral objectives with respect to democratic human relations. Implicit in these aims are two fundamentals which have emerged during the past two years of the project and which are woven into the materials' design and pedagogical procedures developed for teaching these materials. They are the fact that behavior is learned or taught and not innate, and that diversity in terms of race, religion, national origin, appearance, and behavior is one of the most positive advantages of American life.

It has been the project's concern, therefore, that early in life, young people understand that the behavior of an individual is shaped by agents of socialization and environment and is not predetermined, especially by one's racial or ethnic characteristics. We also seek to advance the principle that diversity is an enriching characteristic of American life. For too long a period of our history, members of the majority (white, Christian) culture in the United States have received messages in instructional materials and other media which tend to portray the superiority of this culture. Conversely, members of minority groups, generally speaking, do not see themselves or their accomplishments in these materials or in media. Messages reaching them thus tend to advance a negative self- and group concept which adversely affects their capacity and desire to perform well in the educational institution. In brief, it is the hope of those associated with the project that the instructional materials and teaching strategies they have developed will help young people to appreciate the positive aspects of diversity and to refrain from stereotypic thinking and discriminatory behavior with respect to others who differ from them in terms of race, creed, or national origin.

C. Method of Project Development

The development of the units on race and culture in American life in the second phase of the project was predicated upon the research and the preparation of pilot materials during the project's first phase (March, 1965 - May, 1966). In late September, 1966, the project's staff definitely decided to develop a lower grade unit focusing upon the neighborhood and the community which could be used in social studies classes, and an upper grade unit within the framework of United States history as taught at the intermediate level. A working party for each unit was organized (see Acknowledgments, above), and these groups met twenty-two times at the Lincoln Filene Center from October, 1966, to June, 1967. Dr. Grannis chaired the lower grade working party, while Dr. Gibson led the upper grade group. Members of both groups discussed their progress with each other during the course of these meetings.

During October and November, 1966, each group debated at some length how best to approach the task at hand. There was considerable give-and-take with respect to the intellectual foundations of each unit and the methodology which should be developed. Although both groups relied heavily upon the research and development of the project's first phase, new findings, reports on innovative approaches in intergroup education, and advice from a number of teachers and social scientists interested in this project were drawn upon in developing guidelines for the construction of each unit. Some members of both working parties were at odds on both the intellectual dimensions of the units and how they should be treated in the classroom. Both groups started down tracks which were abandoned in favor of different approaches. In brief, each working party found it necessary to devote considerable time and energy to finding a basis for the development of the materials.

The project's staff at the Lincoln Filene Center met frequently between the semimonthly sessions of the working parties in order to consolidate progress accomplished at the meetings, to add to the content of the developing units, and to prepare for the next meeting of the working parties. Members of the working parties, in turn, were given assignments or research directives for presentations at each meeting. Progress reports on unit development were circulated among members of each party.

The introductory part of the upper grade unit was fairly well-organized by January, 1967. Mrs. John Hilbert began teaching this section of the unit in Newton (Massachusetts) elementary schools in January and February, and Mr. Frank Lyman also taught some of this material in Lexington (Massachusetts). In April and May, 1967, Dr. Gibson and Mrs. Hilbert taught the first half of the upper grade unit in three Medford (Massachusetts) elementary schools, while Mr. Lyman continued his work in Lexington. Mrs. Hilbert also taught in Winchester (Massachusetts) in May and June. During July and August, 1967, the upper grade units were taught in a Title III project in Brookline and under the aegis of a Title I project in Lowell.

Progress on the lower grade unit was somewhat slower in the spring of 1967, largely due to the heavy commitments of members of this working party. Nevertheless, some pilot teaching of the unit's concepts was undertaken by Miss Melissa Tillman at the New School for Children in Boston and by

Mrs. Doreen Wilkinson at the Lesley-Ellis School in Cambridge. Miss Anderson and Miss Ada McIntosh of Brookline worked with more developed lower grade materials in the Title III Brookline project during the summer of 1967, and the unit was also used in the Title I curriculum in Lowell in July and August.

Dr. Helen J. Kenney of Northeastern University directed the evaluation program for the project. She and the project's evaluation team developed a number of instruments for evaluative purposes, which are described in considerable detail in Section IV of this report. The project staff at the Lincoln Filene Center responded to over a thousand requests for information on the project. A progress report was written in May, 1967, and it received very wide circulation throughout the United States. Dr. Gibson and Miss Anderson have given many talks on the project before educational groups in the nation. Dr. Gibson has directed all phases of the development of the two provisional units, although it should be made quite clear that everyone involved in the project had the full freedom to express their views about the content, methodology, and teaching of the units.

D. Results

The actual results of the project are the two units, accompanying learning activities for students, and classroom strategies for teachers. These are set forth in Part B of Sections II and III of this report. The evaluation of the teaching of the units (Section IV), the bibliography and listing of resource centers (Section V), and the appendices may also be considered as results or products of the research and development of the project.

E. Discussion

The analysis and interpretation of the teaching-learning process emanating from the two units are set forth in Part C of Sections II and III of this report. The project director decided that the presentation of the content of the two units should be accompanied by an analysis of the problems and issues related to the teaching of the units in various kinds of classrooms, and therefore, the appraisal by the project's staff of the value of the units is to be found in Sections II and III.

It should be stated here, however, that the analysis and evaluation lead the staff to the conclusion that the two units and accompanying learning activities and teaching strategies can contribute toward a positive affective development in democratic human relations by children using these materials. The units have also provided a means for teachers to handle the issue of racial and cultural diversity in the classroom in an intelligent and comfortable manner. Staff analysis indicates, however, that much remedial work on both units will be necessary before they can be widely used, especially by teachers who have had no direct involvement in the development of the materials.

F. Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

1. Conclusions

a. The instructional materials and teaching strategies developed under the project appear to contribute toward meeting the well-defined need for more effective teaching and learning about democratic human relations at the elementary school level. This is a very provisional observation and is based upon the views of those involved in the development of the materials and strategies, educators who collaborated with the project staff and consultants, and the tentative results of evaluation procedures. Further development of the materials, more varied kinds of classroom teaching experiences, and additional evaluation techniques are essential if one is definitely to say that the units incorporated in this report can make a significant contribution toward meeting the high goals established for the project. It may be said, however, that the project staff and associates are agreed that the research of the first phase of the project and the developmental and teaching activities during the second phase represent an important step toward improving the teaching-learning process with respect to racial and cultural diversity among elementary school students and teachers.

b. The provisional evaluation procedures and findings explained in Part IV of this report provide new insights in how to examine the affective development of the elementary school student in the area of democratic human relations. The project staff concludes that evaluation instruments and procedures are imperative if instructional materials and teaching strategies in intergroup relations are to be utilized effectively in elementary schools. In particular, the principle of using various evaluation procedures for feedback and curriculum revision in different kinds of classroom situations is a product of the project which is exciting and valuable.

c. The instructional units and teaching strategies have emphasized the full involvement of students in the teaching-learning process and in the actual development of a "textbook" in the classroom. These procedures have tended to verify research findings that students' learning will be increased if they are significantly engaged in the teaching-learning process. This appears to be especially true in the area of racial and cultural diversity. Didactic and expository teaching of this subject, often characterized by the teacher exhorting students not to be prejudicial in thinking or discriminatory in overt behavior, apparently has little effect in encouraging students to be more democratic in their relations toward each other. The units have sought to develop procedures whereby students can sort out problems and issues of sameness and differences on their own and engage in discovery, inquiry, role playing, gaming, and other means to advance toward the project's objectives.

d. The content and procedures of the instructional units have been of value to teachers in helping them to clarify their own perspectives on the teaching about democratic human relations in the classroom. On the other hand, many teachers hold the view that children are not prejudicial in thinking and that accentuating differences in terms of race, creed, or national origin only impresses upon students' minds differences in human behavior and possibly negative consequences associated with differences. Teachers expressing such a point of view often are not the best exponents of democratic human relations. Although the project staff has been delighted with the way most of the teachers involved in the project have handled the materials, the staff also realizes the deep sensitivities of many teachers in this area and thus the need for sensitivity training and, in a more general sense, improved patterns of intergroup relations education among potential and professional teachers.

e. The instructional units appear suitable for any lower grade and upper grade elementary curriculum. They tend to complement different kinds of programs at the second and third grades (lower grade unit) and in grades four, five, and six as well (upper grade unit). In brief, they are adaptable and flexible instructional programs and can be used in part or in whole and in many ways.

f. It is the conclusion of the project staff that the procedures utilized in developing the instructional materials and teaching strategies were sound and quite productive. At each major step in the development process, parts of the units were taught in various schools. The feedback was valuable in altering lesson plans and learning activities as well as some structural aspects of the units. The continuous teaching and evaluation of the units were therefore interlaced with the writing of parts of the units for students and teachers alike.

g. The staff concludes that much remains to be done before these materials and strategies can make a significant contribution to the teaching and learning about democratic human relations in the elementary schools. Although the recommendations below are specific on this score, a few observations should be noted here. In both units, the transition from one basic methodological tool to another is not always clear and smooth. For instance, the links among the governing process, the trilogy, the ideal and reality, and the here and now in the introductory part of the upper grade unit require further thought and modification so that this section can provide a better foundation for the subunits which follow it. Problems affecting audio-visuals, teacher education, and evaluation are obvious to the staff and require close and extended study. In brief, the staff must stress the provisional nature of these materials and strategies and emphasize the need for considerable modifications and additions before these units are used on a wide basis in the elementary school classrooms of the nation.

2. Implications

a. The distribution of the units and related learning activities and teaching strategies poses a distinct problem to the staff. The matter of maximizing the use of findings and materials emerging from research and development projects has not received sufficient attention by many educators in the United States. The Lincoln Filene Center has received well over a thousand requests for the project materials. This indicates evidence of a genuine need for such a program in intergroup relations and a demand for significant innovative approaches to the teaching-learning process in this field. The Center has responded to such requests by sending its progress reports on the project and by making recommendations on the use of a variety of audio-visual materials in intergroup relations. The distribution of this report will be handled in a similar manner. But the broader problem remains--that of distributing the findings and helping teachers to use these materials in the classroom. A related implication arising from the project is the matter of these materials entering the public domain when they are still in the formative stage of development. The units and recommended teaching strategies are in provisional form only and are not sufficiently developed for wide use without direct assistance from the project staff and without further modifications, additions of audio-visuals, more sophisticated evaluation, and refined learning activities and bibliographical recommendations. Hopefully, these materials will not be duplicated and distributed by any publishing house or any person or group seeking financial gain.

b. This raises the question of teacher education. These materials necessitate an inductive approach to teaching, and many teachers are sensitive with respect to the subject matter of the project. Therefore, the question of teacher education is a significant implication of this project because these materials will never be used on a wide basis unless teachers are willing to introduce them in their classrooms. They will not do this unless they can gain the confidence that they can teach inductively and can feel comfortable in bringing the issues of the project before their students. They will also need the support of their superiors in their school systems and, in all probability, the parents of their students and other members of their respective communities. The project staff can do little about securing the support for teachers of the administrators and the community; however, they can make recommendations concerning pre-service and in-service teacher education in intergroup relations. In any event, the implications of bringing the product of a major research and development project into American classrooms are great and merit much more serious consideration and discussion than they have received to date.

c. The implications of packaging instructional materials should also be noted. This project has developed several ways of devising materials for students, and modifications and refinement of the units during academic 1967-1968 will result in further innovations in this respect. The project staff intends to produce an "instructional package" for each unit which would take the form of a 24" x 24" x 24" box for a classroom. The box would contain all of the items needed for effective teaching of the unit. The project is not producing a "textbook" and standard teachers' manual. However, the implications of this "learning laboratory" for schools and teachers are important in many ways and require some extensive examination with respect to their validity.

d. The implications of research and evaluation under this project are also of significance. Research is constantly taking place at the Lincoln Filene Center and at other institutions concerning race relations, learning theory, curriculum design, packaging of instructional materials, pedagogy and methodology, and in many other areas having a direct relationship to the project. If the instructional materials and teaching strategies under the project are to have maximum value, it is essential that the Center's staff be involved in research in this area and also be acquainted with related research at other institutions. This is a gigantic task and requires more staffing than is presently available. The implications arising from the evaluation processes and instruments presented in this report (Section IV) also deserve close attention by those genuinely concerned with appraising the value of innovative approaches to the teaching and learning about democratic human relations. The Center does not know at this time how effective its evaluative techniques will be. Nevertheless, it will apply the processes and instruments described in Section IV to the teaching of the units during academic 1967-1968 and will report within a year on how these procedures appear to measure student affective change in intergroup relations as the result of classroom use of the materials. This is a pioneering effort because there is so little data on this matter and practically no other instruments or processes to measure affective change in intergroup relations among elementary school students and teachers.

3. Recommendations

Most of the following recommendations are incorporated in the proposal by the Lincoln Filene Center to the United States Office of Education of August 30, 1967, requesting support for the continuation of the project. They reflect the specific needs for modifications, refinement, and additions to the present instructional materials and teaching strategies. The following recommendations are of a general nature; more specific suggestions with respect to each unit may be found in Section II, Part C, No. 4, and Section III, Part C, No. 3, of this report.

a. Each unit should be developed so as to produce an instructional package for the lower grade and upper grade "Program in Race and Culture in American Life." As indicated above, an instructional package would basically take the form of a 24" x 24" x 24" box for use in the classroom. It would contain a teachers' manual, written materials for students, suggestions for student development of his own instructional materials, pictures and other visuals, audio-tapes with open-ended case studies, an extensive bibliographical and resource center guide for teachers, and evaluation procedures and instruments.

b. It is recommended that in order to produce these instructional packages, the following must be done:

1. The project staff must engage in research in education and race relations and, to the best of its ability, incorporate significant research findings in this area into the further development of these units.

2. Many modifications and additions to the two units should be made. These should include the experiences and recommendations from the teachers using the units in the summer of 1967 and during academic 1967-1968. A number of additional learning activities should be incorporated into

both units, and the vocabulary sections of both units should be considerably expanded. More subunits must be added to the upper grade program.

3. It is imperative that a number of audio-visuals be added to each unit. These would include pictures, audio-tapes, slides, transparencies, and possibly some film strips and very short films (8 mm closed-loop).

4. Procedures must be devised to help teachers to use the units effectively in the classroom. Institutes, training films, and video tapes of classroom teaching of the materials are recommended. An expanded and improved teachers' manual is also necessary.

5. During the process of modifying and refining the units, the materials and strategies presented in this report should be used in many different kinds of classrooms in various parts of the United States. This expanded teaching program should be so organized as to provide maximum assistance from the project staff to those using these materials in their classrooms. It is also essential that the teachers using project materials convey their criticisms, observations, and recommendations concerning the effectiveness of the units to the project staff so that these reports may be fully considered in unit revision and refinement.

6. The expanded teaching program must be evaluated carefully by using the evaluation procedures and instruments set forth in Section IV of this report. The evaluation feedback should be extensively relied upon as the staff continues to make modifications in the content and structure of the units.

G. Summary

This is a summary of the final report by the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, to the United States Office of Education on the Center's Cooperative Research Project entitled The Development of Appropriate Instructional Units and Related Materials on Racial and Cultural Diversity in America (Project No. OEC-1-7-062140-0256). The first phase of this project began on March 1, 1965, and was completed on April 30, 1966. The second phase of the project began on September 15, 1966, and terminated on September 14, 1967. This summary of the second phase describes the problem to which the project addressed itself, the objectives, methods used in research and development, results of the project, highlights of the project and their significance, and recommendations for future courses of action in the development of instructional materials and teaching strategies on race and culture in American life at the elementary school level.

1. The Problem

The central problem to which this project has addressed itself is to assist in meeting the need for instructional materials and teaching strategies which can provide more effective teaching and learning about racial and cultural diversity in American life. The project staff and others have stressed this need and have identified research findings which indicate that instructional materials and teaching strategies in race relations have been markedly inadequate. This has been particularly true at the elementary school level. Students between the ages of 5 and 12 undergo a critically important period in their lives as far as the development of their attitudes and values about self and others is concerned. The project staff feels, therefore, that it is imperative to develop appropriate instructional materials which can make contributions in the elementary school in assisting young people to develop attitudes and values which will be supportive of democratic human relations in a society marked by its diversity. It is equally important that these materials be accompanied by effective teaching strategies which can help teachers to use them effectively and comfortably in the classroom.

2. The Objectives of the Project

The central aim of the project has been to prepare instructional materials and to devise complementary teaching strategies on race and culture in America at the elementary level for the purpose of advancing democratic human relations for both students and teachers. These materials and strategies have been designed to help to promote a positive self- and group concept among elementary school children and to assist in reducing stereotypic thinking, prejudicial covert behavior, and discriminatory overt behavior as well. Implicit in these objectives are two fundamentals which are woven into the design of the materials and the pedagogical procedures developed for teaching these materials. They are the fact that covert and overt behavioral patterns are learned or taught and not innate, and that diversity in terms of race, religion, national origin, appearance, and behavior is one of the most positive advantages of American life. The project also seeks to assist the teacher in handling intergroup relations in the classroom and to develop materials which fully engage students in the teaching-learning process.

3. Methods Employed to Strive Toward the Project's Objectives

The project staff at the Lincoln Filene Center drew heavily upon the research findings and pilot development of materials undertaken during the first phase of the project (March 1, 1965, through April 30, 1966) as well as other research, development, and teacher education programs at the Center in the area of intergroup relations. Scholarly activity in this field as reported by other institutions of higher learning and the findings of many other projects in intergroup relations were also employed extensively in the present project.

The staff decided that a lower grade and an upper grade unit should be developed, both of which would be intellectually sound and stimulating and flexible in terms of use at the primary and intermediate levels in the elementary school. In effect, the "units" were viewed as instructional programs which could be used in primary and intermediate grades either over a specific period of time (six to eight weeks) or over the entire school year. During the course of development of the two teaching and learning programs on race and culture this past year, the project staff increasingly felt that the latter approach to weaving these programs into the elementary school curriculum would be more useful to students and teachers than having them taught exclusively over a period of six to eight weeks.

Working parties were established for the development of each unit, and the two groups met at the Lincoln Filene Center every other week during academic 1966-1967. The Lower Grade Unit focused upon the self, groups, and intergroup actions and reactions of young people within the context of the family, the neighborhood, and the community. The intermediate level course in United States history provided the framework for the development of the Upper Grade Unit. Working party members included social scientists, elementary school teachers, and others professionally engaged in elementary school education and intergroup relations.

As the units developed, they both were taught on a pilot basis in representative elementary school classrooms by members of the working parties. Considerable feedback from these classroom experiences was utilized by the project staff and working parties in modifying the materials and in devising appropriate teaching strategies. This provisional teaching program continued during the spring of 1967 and was followed by the teaching of the more developed units in the summer of 1967. Constant feedback from working party members and teachers using the units independently of the project staff was incorporated into the units as they are presented in this report. An extensive and penetrating evaluation program accompanied the teaching of the units. The project staff at the Lincoln Filene Center drew fully upon all of the research and developmental phases of the units, as well as the teaching experiences and evaluation procedures and instruments, in the writing of the final report.

4. Results

The results of the project include the Lower Grade and the Upper Grade Units on race and culture in American life for students which are set forth in Parts II and III of this report. Secondly, each unit is accompanied by suggested teaching strategies for teachers using these units. In the third place, a full report on recommended evaluation procedures and instruments with respect to race and culture in American life is a significant result of the project. Finally, many bibliographical recommendations for students and teachers are among the findings and productivity of the project.

5. Highlights of the Project

a. The two units were enthusiastically received by the vast majority of the students and teachers using the materials.

b. Student enthusiasm for learning and placing a value on the process of education was furthered by the project materials which were organized so as to engage the student fully in the classroom in the teaching and learning about intergroup relations. Development by the students of their own "textbooks" was a significant highlight as well.

c. Provisional evaluation indicates that the project's materials did help to advance students toward the goals of the project. It is also the project staff's distinct impression that the materials and teaching strategies helped teachers to handle the units effectively and comfortably and to re-examine their own perspectives on intergroup relations.

d. The evaluation procedures and instruments provide innovative approaches to measuring and appraising the affective development of elementary school students in the domain of democratic human relations.

6. Significance of These Highlights

a. The success of the teaching of the two units in different kinds of classrooms indicates that the materials can be used on a wide basis in the United States, providing that the units undergo further modification and refinement.

b. The units can make an effective contribution toward encouraging students to advance toward the desired behaviors in intergroup education and to view the process of education in a positive and personally significant manner.

c. The units and accompanying teaching strategies can greatly assist teachers to handle in the classroom what many consider a broad and sensitive area of education.

d. The evaluation procedures and processes can provide many means for measuring student affective development toward desirable goals and for revising the curriculum to meet local and specific classroom needs.

e. The project's total program can make a genuine contribution toward the national need for more effective teaching and learning about intergroup relations in an open society.

7. Recommendations

It is important to note that while many positive impressions and observations characterize the findings presented in this report, the program developed thus far is provisional in nature and incomplete in terms of unit development. Although the project staff and those associated with them feel that their efforts have led to a significant beginning in a viable and stimulating program in the teaching and learning about intergroup relations at the elementary school level, many shortcomings in this program require considerable remedial work and also some modification of the two units. The following recommendations are submitted with a view to meeting these deficiencies in the total program:

a. The project staff at the Lincoln Filene Center should continue research and development with respect to the two units.

b. The two units should be modified and refined in a number of areas. The connective links among the three segments of the Lower Grade Unit must be improved as well as the relation between the introduction to the Upper Grade Unit and its subunits on various eras and issues of United States history. Other segments of both units require remedial work as well.

c. Additions of content and audio-visual material to both units are imperative.

d. Each unit, upon further development, should take the form of an instructional package which would include all of the materials for student use and manuals and other directives for teachers in handling the program in the elementary school classroom.

e. Both units require much more extensive teaching in many different kinds of classrooms in the United States before they can be used to their full potential on a wide basis in elementary school classrooms.

f. The total program requires more effective programs in teacher education in intergroup relations.

g. The evaluation procedures and instruments must have more extensive testing and use in different kinds of classrooms before one can accurately say that the total program is really advancing students and teachers toward desired objectives.

II. THE LOWER GRADE UNIT

A. AN OVERVIEW OF THE LOWER GRADE UNIT

The Lower Grade Working Party has been under the direction of Dr. Joseph C. Grannis of the Harvard Graduate School of Education and a widely known specialist in elementary social studies. Other members of the Working Party are as follows: Miss Astrid C. Anderson of the Center staff; Miss Helen Clark, a second-grade teacher in the Winchester, Massachusetts, public schools; Miss Elsa Jaffe, co-author of the McGraw-Hill Skyline Series, formerly on the staff of the Bank Street College of Education, and currently a doctoral candidate at the Harvard Graduate School of Education; Mrs. Louise C. Smith, a student at the Harvard Graduate School of Education; Miss Melissa Tillman, a first-grade teacher at the New School for Children in Boston; and Mrs. Doreen Wilkinson, a first-grade teacher at the Lesley-Ellis School, Lesley College, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

The theoretical framework for the unit was largely designed by Dr. Grannis and emerged from his years of professional concern in the area of elementary-school social studies. It is concerned with over-all patterns of human interaction in society and culture and more specifically with interaction between individuals, within and between families -- all within the context of neighborhoods and communities. The unit develops the idea that an individual who "is" some things, "does" some things, and "feels" some things is always coming into contact with another individual who "is" some things, "does" some things, and "feels" some things. In the instance of groups, the case becomes one of individuals in the plural. There are always similarities, as well as differences, between individuals -- and thus between groups. The interaction takes place in a situation, which is to some degree difined by norms. As the individuals (or groups) interact, there are results and changes -- "results" being the word chosen to indicate that what people were in the beginning affected the dynamics of the interaction, and "changes" being the word chosen to indicate what the individual(s) involved now "is," "does," and "feels." The unit, as one might expect for the second grade, does not rely heavily upon the printed word. An emphasis is being placed on the use of word games, pictures, role playing, capitalization upon incidents in the lives of the chilren using the unit, discussion guided by the teacher, and possibly films.

This "unit" may appear to be an exercise in social psychology for the second grade. If it is, it is because the Working Party feels strongly that before the child can reasonably be asked to look intelligently and sensitively at the specifics of racial delineations and ethnic acculturation in this society and in the world, he must be provided with a cognitive model for thinking about the interaction between individuals and groups generally. And prior to thinking about two or more individuals, he must be able to both think and talk about the visible and invisible characteristics of a person. This unit will tie into the conventional study of the community in what is felt to be a more challenging and intellectually stimulating fashion than that offered in the conventional second-grade curriculum.

If this unit is an exercise in social psychology, it is one which pays particular attention throughout to the social psychology of racial and ethnic relationships. In the use of the interaction model, the emphasis is always on racial and ethnic phenomena. Other areas of social interaction will be utilized, however, in an effort to demonstrate to children that some explanations for racial and ethnic phenomena lie in related -- but not always obvious -- areas of human behavior. For instance, an aggressive reaction to "strangeness" -- while conspicuous on the racial scene -- is not necessarily peculiar to it. Other areas of social interaction will also be drawn upon to illustrate what norms are and how they operate, in order that children might begin to understand the role of norms in the racial and ethnic life of American society.

The Lower Grade Working Party took seriously its charge to develop a unit on the neighborhood for the second grade. That it has concluded its operations with a unit which sounds like one in social psychology for seven-year-olds is a result of also having taken seriously the objectives of the project outlined in the Preface and in the Overview. As a result of experimentation with the material by a total of ten teachers over a period of eight months, it is now clear that the family, the neighborhood, and the community come into play in the unit more than is evidenced, perhaps, in Part B (The Content of the Lower Grade Unit) of this Section of the final report. Part B, the content of the unit as it was handed to eight of the ten teachers involved, is most accurately described as a guide for teachers. It does not always try to predict what responses children will have to its many suggestions for drawing out children's observations and experiences. However, the tryouts of the summer of 1967 (a Title III program in Brookline, Massachusetts, and a Title I program in Lowell, Massachusetts) have demonstrated clearly that the arena of a 6-9-year-old child's observations and experiences is the family, the neighborhood, and the community. It is clear that highly detailed elaborations of this finding must be built into the lesson plans which are being written to accompany the teacher's guide, which is Section II, Part B, of this final report.

Further elaboration of the experience of teaching the material in this unit follows in Part C of this section, "Teaching the Lower Grade Unit." Elaboration on the teaching experiences is divided into three areas: 1. Teaching During the Working Party Year, 2. Teaching in the Brookline-Newton-Lexington Summer 1967 Title III Program, and 3. Teaching in the Lowell Summer 1967 Title I Program. At the conclusion of Part C have been inserted two examples of materials developed during the summer for children's use, as well as copies of three detailed lesson plans on various sections of the unit which were developed by the teacher of the Brookline program for the use of the Title I teachers in Lowell. Also inserted at the conclusion of Part C is a xeroxed copy of a booklet written and illustrated for the Lower Grade Unit at the suggestion of the Lower Grade Working Party. This booklet, too, is for the use of children. (Some of the original illustrations are in color, a facet of the booklet which has been lost in the xeroxing process.)

Area 4 of Part C covers recommendations for further development of the unit as a result of the past year's experience; area 5 goes into recommendations for teacher education; and the sixth area in Part C deals with those conclusions of the Lower Grade Working Party staff which are not covered by recommendations specifically for the unit and for teacher education, such as the conditions under which the materials should be tried out from now on. The remainder of Part C deals with everything from the urgent need for long-term tryouts in racially and ethnically heterogeneous third grades, for early collaboration with an adventursome publisher, and for numerically unambitious experiments in teacher education, to extremely specific examples of the way in which the unit must be developed for widespread publication and use.

Part D of Section II is composed of two bibliographies, one for teachers of the Lower Grade Unit and one for the children using it.

B. THE CONTENT OF THE LOWER GRADE UNIT

by

Dr. Joseph C. Grannis
Teachers College
Columbia University

INTRODUCTION

This course of study can be thought of as a unit, to be pursued in six or more weeks of fairly intensive work, or as a sequence of activities to be used as occasion allows throughout the year. We do not yet know which of these alternatives, if either, would produce the better effect.

The basic purpose of the course is to foster children's increased understanding of themselves and other persons as individuals. The authors have especially been concerned with the understanding and acceptance of Negroes by whites obviously, but equally by the Negro children themselves where they are among the pupils engaging in this study.

Here is a somewhat more explicit statement of this basic purpose:

The course aims to promote an increase in children's

1. acceptance of and respect for themselves.
2. differentiation among individuals, including individuals in any given group.
3. identification with individuals in other groups, on the basis of shared feelings and desires.
4. understanding of how an individual's feelings and actions are in part a function of the group or groups he belongs to.
5. recognition of various interactions that occur between persons of different groups.
6. realization of alternative actions for an individual in an intergroup relationship, and of the different consequences of these actions to himself and to others.

All of these aims are difficult so we cannot say that the list proceeds from easiest to hardest. Furthermore, none of these could be fully accomplished within the limits of the school. At the same time, we think there is a certain order of dependence in our list, especially in that acceptance of oneself, among whites as well as among Negros, is a prerequisite for acceptance of others. Prejudice and discrimination are fired in good part by uncertainties, fears, and even hatreds individuals have of themselves. It is thus crucial that children be involved in free exploration of themselves, hand in hand with their learning about others.

A distinguished educator has recently made a succinct and sobering statement of the classroom implications of research on the reduction of prejudice and discrimination:

> Even very young children are aware of prejudice and are involved in it. Helen Trager and Marian Radke found in Philadelphia that kindergarten and first-grade children coming from homes prejudiced against a minority group already showed this prejudice in word and action.* In the Philadelphia studies it was noticed that friendly contacts in the classroom did not prevent the growth of prejudices. Prejudices were seemingly absorbed from the home and neighborhood even while the children were having friendly school experiences with the group in question. Trager and Radke have contended that the teaching of general democratic principles does not reduce prejudice either.**

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*Helen G. Trager and Marian Radke, "Early Childhood Airs its Views, "Educational Leadership, V (1947), 16-24.

**Marian Radke, Helen G. Trager, and Hadassah Davis, "Social Perceptions and Attitudes of Children, "Genetic Psychology Monographs, XL (1949).

Hyman Meltzer has reported the same general finding -- that there seems to be little relation between the course of study and the rise of prejudice.*

Reviewing the research into attempts to alter racial and ethnic attitudes, Arnold Rose concluded that only one kind of experience appeared to affect such attitudes: when the child is having friendly contact with members of the group toward which he holds a prejudice, he must be caused to evaluate his attitudes.** This evaluation, made in an objective manner, will help him free himself of unwitting prejudice.***

All this evidence seems clearly to indicate the following:

Social attitudes are absorbed from social groups beginning in very early childhood.

Attitudes to some extent arise independently of contact with the objects of the attitudes.

Favorable experience with the object of a negative attitude is not likely to change the attitude.

General teaching about attitudes is not likely to affect attitude formation.

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*Hyman Meltzer, "The Development of Children's Nationality Preferences, Concepts, and Attitudes," Journal of Psychology, XL (1941), 343-58.

**Arnold Rose, Studies in the Reduction of Prejudice (Chicago: American Council on Race Relations, 1948).

***Robin M. Williams, Jr., The Reduction of Intergroup Tensions (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1947), surveys the research bearing on the issues and problems involved in ethnic, racial, and religious attitudes. Though published in 1947, the survey is still instructive in dealing with issues of concern to educators, and every teacher should know the book and its implications for the classroom.

> Teaching that provides experience with the object of the attitude and combines this experience with an evaluation of the attitude will have some chance of helping individuals free themselves from their prejudices.[1]

From the last of these statements, we can conclude that it would be desirable to have an integrated classroom in order to reduce the prejudices children of different groups or races have toward one another. Whether prejudice can be reduced in an all-white or all-Negro classroom we do not know. Because in fact so many classrooms today are not integrated, it has been the hope of the authors that we could design a course of study that would make some contribution to children's acceptance of others even though they do not have the opportunity to study together with these others. While we agree that mere teaching about attitudes, or preaching, is not likely to affect the children's attitudes, we do hypothesize that the children can develop with their classmates certain ways of thinking that could then be more readily redeveloped, if not simply transferred, in subsequent experience with individuals of a different group. Of course, materials about the outgroup, white or Negro, can and should be introduced in the classroom, in ways that will be suggested in this course of study. Likewise, visits or exchanges can be arranged between groups. These measures will at least, if the classroom conditions are right, get the children's beliefs and feelings out in the open. To what extent the children will then be able to assess the appropriateness of their beliefs and feelings, and extend the understandings developed among themselves to these others with whom they do not have a sustained experience, we cannot now say. We ask the teachers to join with us as experimenters, and we frankly acknowledge the difficulty of the task.

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[1] Joyce, Bruce R., Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education, Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965, pp. 110-111.

Materials about Negroes for primary-grade children are still in appallingly short supply, and teachers will have to create some of their own, taking those that we have furnished or suggested as examples. This is not merely a supply problem, however. It is symptomatic of a great reluctance to discuss or even recognize matters of race in the classroom, especially the more loaded or dangerous questions of interracial conflict. We want to encourage teachers to discuss these matters with their pupils, in a way that recognizes both the capacities and the limitations of young children's understanding. More specifically, we want children to be able to discuss their feelings and expectations, especially their fears, in relation to people's race or color; we want the children to examine specific individuals or situations, so that they can begin to distinguish between cases where their feelings and expectations might be justified, and cases where alternative responses might be more appropriate; we do not want moral platitudes to be substituted for realistic exploration and judgment; and we do not want overgeneralizations about people of any group or race.

There are two points in the above statement that are especially difficult to work out in practice. One is the idea that it is the children's own feelings and expectations, or what they have picked up as hearsay, that should ordinarily be the point of departure for their exploration. One reason for this is to avoid overwhelming them with something too big for them to handle. Thus it is our hunch that it would not be wise for a teacher to lead off a discussion with, say, the observation that "A lot of people are afraid that Negroes in the city will riot," or, conversely, "Negroes in the city are afraid that the police will beat them up." These observations may, of course, come from the children themselves, spontaneously or in response to, say, a picture that a child or the teacher has brought in. In this case, the teacher can help the children trace the observation to something that has actually happened, for example, a specific incident in a riot; can explore the feelings and actions of the individuals involved, so as to recognize the reality of the case, but also to get it down to the concrete level of human beings with control over their actions and with feelings that can be empathized with; and the teacher can introduce material about people in similar circumstances or with similar feelings, white and Negro, who did not act in the same way. In this way, the teacher is not in the position of having to qualify or explain or retract her own generalization, such as one about Negroes' rioting, and instead is in a position to help the children test and differentiate the feelings and expectations they have. This leads to the second point that we feel needs to be worked out carefully in practice, the necessity of avoiding and discouraging overgeneralization. Of course, it will not be accomplished by exhorting the children of the class (especially if the class is integrated), nor will it be accomplished through the introduction into the children's investigations of pictures, stories, and visitors.

We are frankly fearful that generalizations that are quite necessary to our own, adult comprehension of interracial relations and problems will not be understood by the children in terms of the complex set of conditions that explains them, but rather in more simplistic terms that focus too narrowly on people's motives and capabilities. As examples of these generalizations, let us cite the following: "Negroes on the whole are poorer than whites in America today," or "Negroes' neighborhoods are more run down," or "Negroes are angry at whites." Again, children themselves may come up with observations like this. In that case, it will be necessary to (i) explore the children's interpretations of these observations, (ii) explore the feelings of, say, a family (fictitious or real, whichever is more appropriate) involved in these circumstances: their dislike of poverty, slum conditions, etc., (iii) consider the efforts of Negroes and whites together to get slum landlords to improve their property and to get employers to hire and pay without racial discrimination, etc., and (iv) consider Negroes and whites in other situations where the generalizations do not apply. (Some case material, for example, newspaper articles, should be supplied to teachers for this purpose; at the time of this writing, this material is lacking in the course.)

It should be noticed that there is no attempt in this course to avoid topics like housing or job discrimination; they are, in fact, suggested as problems to be studied in the Groups and Interactions phases of the course. What has been suggested in the preceding paragraph is simply that the teacher should try to avoid overgeneralization, and that the children's spontaneous generalizations require a strategy, not simply of acceptance or denial, but of examining concrete cases. The cases, indeed -- whether about slum landlords and job discrimination, as indicated above, or suburban fair housing efforts and programs to increase school integration, as suggested subsequently -- are essential to the course as we now conceive it.

From what has been said so far it should be clear that we want to come to grips with negative and frightening thoughts the children have about themselves and others. However, our concern is ultimately to foster positive attitudes, and it is obviously necessary for the children to have positive experiences and material to think about. If the classroom is integrated, the children's experiences with one another have the greatest potential for developing positive attitudes, provided, as Joyce points out in the review of research cited above, that the experiences are accompanied by the children's evaluation. Whether the classroom is integrated or not, it will be important to introduce positive material about people who are not in the classroom. As we have already indicated, there are only a few storybooks about Negroes now available for primary-grade children; the advantage of at least these few, however, is that most children, white and Negro, should be able to identify with the Negro children in the stories. (One storybook, Robert, has been especially written for this course.) We have not suggested in this course that the children's study focus on Negro heroes or celebrities; nevertheless, it might make good sense to do this from time to time, especially when it is topical, as in the case of Thurgood Marshall's appointment to the Supreme Court at the time of this writing. Magazine and newspaper pictures and articles about ordinary people at work or play can be used in many connections in the children's study. They should be used not for artificial or forced glorification of the people portrayed, but as data for the children's questions about individuals, groups, and interactions.

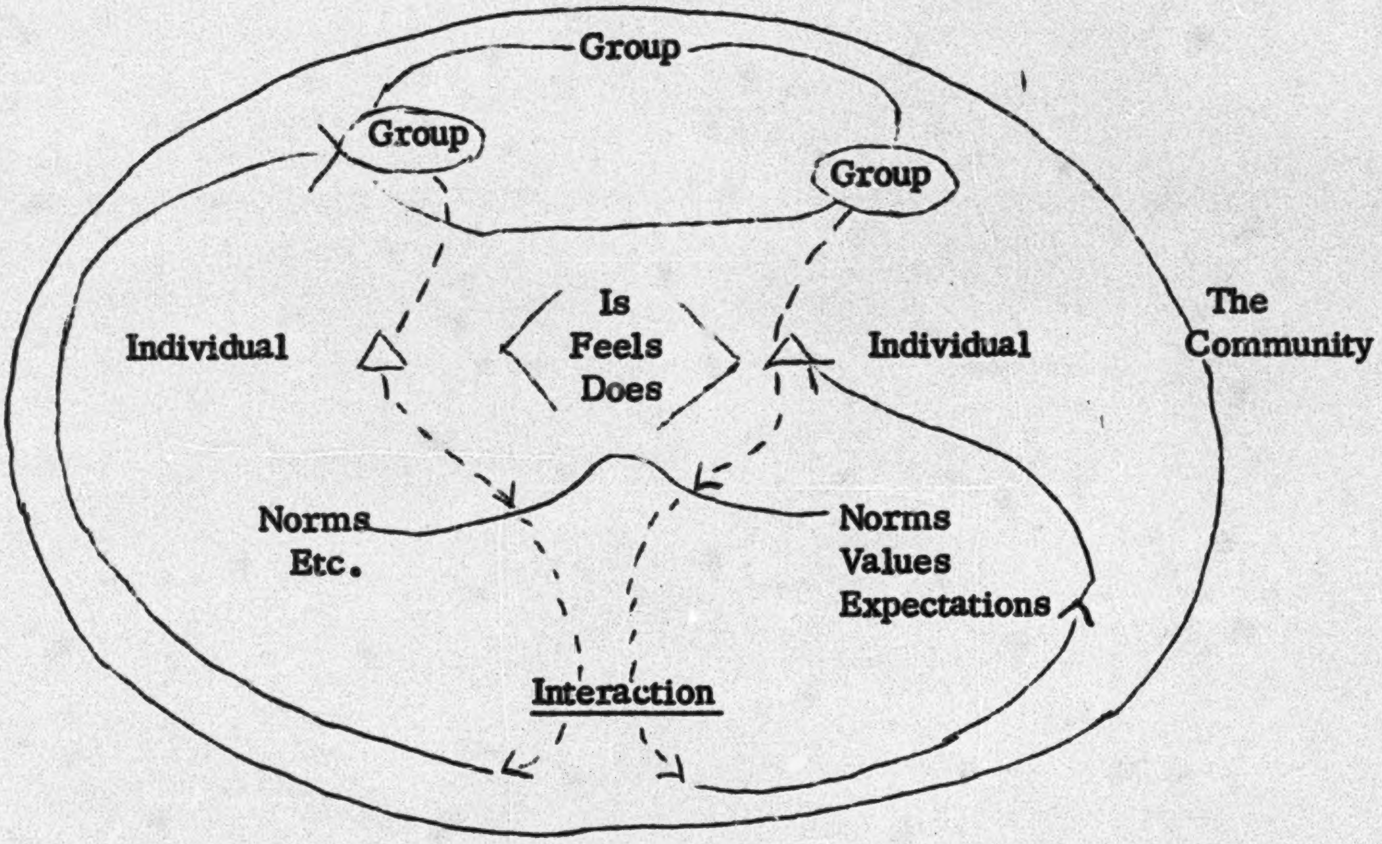
There is a certain ambiguity in this course which the reader may already have recognized for himself. On the one hand, it is meant to apply to all individuals and all groups. On the other hand, we are especially conscious of and concerned about the relations between whites and Negroes. Somehow the teacher must find the right proportion for his own class, capitalizing on other group diversities or prejudices a class may have, on the events of the moment, and so on. In our present thinking, at least, it is important that this study not become "the Negro unit," precisely because we want children to be thinking of race or color as just one of many variations that characterize and affect individuals. Nevertheless, the children must be conscious of Negroes in various contexts of their study.

It is necessary now to elaborate on a word that we have used a couple of times already in this introduction: "evaluate" their attitudes following experiences with the objects of their attitudes. This means partly just that the children openly recognize that they had a good time with so-and-so, admired him, or the like. More, however, it means that the children must compare their feelings and opinions about a given person or experience with their previous expectations. In other words, each experience can be taken as a kind of hypothesis testing -- though to talk about it just this way each time might take some of the humanness out of the children's encounters.

Hypothesis testing is most likely to occur in a class which is a laboratory of inquiry. This observation meshes with another, that comes from research on attitude change: prejudices are most likely to be changed by the imparting of information about the object of prejudice when the learners themselves actively participate in gathering the relevant information. It was urged upon the authors, before they began the construction of this unit, that they aim to teach children something of the social scientist's approach to human affairs. A spirit of observation, comparison, and hypothesis testing is the essence of this approach, and we hope that it will be developed in the classroom. We realize that teachers have been exhorted for years to create an open classroom with a democratic or scientific climate, and at the same time that teachers have too often not been given ideas or materials to facilitate this aim. In the present course, we have tried to suggest activities that primary-grade children can pursue independently, as individuals, or as pairs or teams, as well as activities to be guided by the teacher. Our purpose is to try to increase the teacher's opportunity to let the children conduct their inquiry themselves. We cannot urge too strongly that though children may learn to say the proper things, they will not learn new attitudes in a class which is dominated by the teacher.

Last, let us observe that we have tried to adopt a social scientist's approach in another way, in that we have worked out a simple model of concepts to guide us in the construction of the course, and in turn to guide the teachers and perhaps even the children. The model appears in Figure 1, and we will explicate it below.

Figure 1.


Group
Group
Group
Is
Feels
Does
Individual
Individual
The
Community
Norms
Etc.
Norms
Values
Expectations
Interaction

The idea of the model is that different individuals, belonging to various groups, interact through norms, values, and expectations that are partly determined by their membership in the groups, with consequences that, among other things, play back upon the individuals and the groups they belong to. We have characterized the individuals as being made up of various "is's," and "feelings," a very inelegant way of putting it, but the best we have come up with for use in the primary grades.

The utility of the model is that it keeps our eyes on the several components of the problem. We will build them up one at a time with the children, beginning with individuals, then turning to groups, how individuals' feelings, norms, and actions are partly a function of the groups they belong to, different kinds of interactions, and different consequences.

Part of the reason for this Introduction is that the activities and materials of the course are incomplete. We have hoped to convey the idea of the course to the teacher in such a way that she could generate more activities and materials, suiting them to the resources and characteristics of her own classes. The teacher may well even discard some of our specific suggestions in favor of better ideas that occur to her. This would delight us; in fact, it is essential, as we have already learned from preliminary tryouts. It is the spirit of the course that will make the greatest difference!

A NOTE ON SEQUENCE

We hope there will almost always be a number of activities going on simultaneously in the classroom; some of these activities may stretch throughout the course, and others may be dropped and then returned to at a later time. The order of suggestion, therefore, is not necessarily the order of doing. The teacher will want to look over all the activities, decide which ones she thinks the children can do independently, and set these up accordingly. Other activities will need more of the teacher's guidance, though the children may eventually learn to do these independently, too, for example, the various "tag" games.

Stendler's and Martin's conclusions about the kind of program that is most desirable for intergroup education might be considered here, in connection with the teacher's thinking about how to set up the activities.

Kindergarten and the primary grades are the important, if not the crucial, level for education in intergroup relations, for it is during these years that children's attitudes toward racial and cultural differences are being formed. Awareness of this fact induced Stendler and Martin to conduct a study of children's attitudes and how they develop. The most relevant finding was that attitudes toward Negroes are now chiefly determined not by contact with Negroes but by the prevalent attitude toward Negroes.

The authors base their curriculum for intergroup relations education on what is known about how attitudes develop and how they may be changed. They maintain that that program of intergroup education in the schools is most desirable which:

1. accepts the child as he is and provides recognition of accepting behavior on the part of each child toward every other child.

2. leads to an understanding on the part of the child of the reasons why different people live as they do.

3. fosters interaction among representatives of different groups, with each representative being given equal status.

4. makes it possible for each child to achieve success, but not at the expense of others.[2]

These recommendations imply that both the difficulty and the kinds of activities should be varied, to give each child a chance of repeated, not just occasional, success. They also imply that many activities should be carried out in pairs or small groups, where the children's abilities and interests complement one another. The critical ingredient, as Stendler and Martin make clear, is the community of acceptance. It is not just a method: it is one of the basic objectives of the course.

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[2] Celia Stendler and William Martin, Intergroup Education in Kindergarten-Primary Grades. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1953, pp. 22-26.

I. INDIVIDUALS

Each of these words should be printed on a card or heavy paper.

FEELS	IS	DOES
angry	big	take
free	ugly	hate
shy	courageous	give
cold	brown	ask
scared	white	push
hungry	little	eat
lonely	boy	think
hurt	girl	help
glad	teacher	hide
sad	daddy	skate
silly	yellow	laugh

Each child can build up his own deck by adding words of his choice to this initial set. Some children may not even want this set to start with. Let them find out what they need.

A. Connecting tags

In these beginning activities, we have several objectives, perhaps we should say several kinds of objectives. One is for children to begin distinguishing between things people do, what they are, and how they feel. These are not always mutually exclusive, and some children, if not all, will be able to see that a person could both be cold and feel cold, etc., depending on which aspect of "cold" or "hate," etc., one is concerned with.

We want the children to start talking about and thinking about themselves.

One of the most important objectives of this material, a loosening up of the classroom, will fulfill itself, if the teacher merely provides the time and encouragement for the children to start talking about the meanings the word cards have for them. The teacher should play all the games too, picking out words for herself, later signing up for different groups, making a scrapbook about herself, and so forth.

1. Just place some or all of the cards around the room and invite the children to talk about them with each other, or find a card that fits them, or draw a picture of what a card means to them, etc.

2. The teacher and the children can write new words on blank cards, perhaps to describe themselves more than the given words allow.

3. Which words go together? Have the children make up stories to go with two or more cartoons on the blackboard, or a little drama.

4. Distinguishing between the categories

a) The teacher takes the feels cards and and the does cards (leave the is cards aside for now) and shuffles them. Begin with one of each and discuss with the children the difference between feeling and action or doing. Then have the children sort the others themselves, in a small group guided by the teacher, or in teams, or as individuals, or in some combination of these. If the deck were divided in half, the children would have the advantage of working with fewer cards at a time and the opportunity of trying again after the first sort was discussed.

b) Which feelings go with which actions? Why? The teacher could make a ditto sheet, with the feeling words in one column and the action words in another, and ask the children what lines could be drawn between the columns. One valuable learning would be that a given feeling can lead to more than one action, and vice versa.

5. Repeat 4 a) and b) using is and does cards, and then with is and feels cards. Additionally the children may provide evidence for connecting the cards.

   Do not play these to death! They are an example of the kind of activity that can be put aside while they are still fun and then taken up again later, perhaps at the children's initiative. Besides, there are some different card or tag games coming up.

6. "Pick out cards telling what you would like to be." They could be discussed, or just entered in scrapbook if this already has been started.

7. Here is an exercise that has been suggested for evaluation of whether or not the children know the distinctions between is, does, and feels. It is difficult, however, because it involves using two criteria simultaneously.

On ditto sheets provide the children with these lists:

angry
big
house
brown
cold
scared
ugly
little
hurt
eat
swim
courageous
boy

brick
book
lonely
red
shy
run
hop
free
take
love
jump
ride
teacher

desk
pencil
think
glad
white
small
mother
puppy
happy
pretty
fat
Catholic
loud

walk
yellow
hate
give
skate
hungry
good
scare
ask
push
policeman
hide
play

baseball
Jewish
Batman
man
hit
American
fight
Protestant
quiet
hot
child
cry
spank

a) Circle in red all the words that tell things that YOU sometimes do. (The double criterion here is the you and the do. Don't include this note to the teacher on the children's ditto sheet!)

b) Circle in blue all the words that tell what YOU are.

c) Circle in green all the words that tell how YOU sometimes feel.

d) Turn the ditto sheet over and write one or two more feel, do, and is words. Make these about your teacher.

There are many possible variations on this exercise, like eliminating the YOU criterion, having the class do part of it together, etc. The teacher will have to experiment with it to make it useful.

B. Tagging individuals in the class

We hope the objectives can be readily inferred from the activities themselves. In general, we want the children to learn to apply a number of tags or attributes to a given individual, indicating some grasp of the complexity of an individual and the inadequacy of a single-tag description. We hope the children will begin to distinguish between cases where they are sure of their judgment and cases where they are not, and to anticipate some consequences of mistaken judgment. Finally, we hope they will begin to explore the significance of name calling, to realize how it feels to the person who is attacked and what feelings belong to the attacker.

1. Who can put the most tags on X? A child is chosen -- hopefully, not one who is likely to be attacked by name calling at this early stage -- and the children individually or in small groups decide on what tages to apply, both from those already developed in earlier exercises, and new tags they ask the teacher to write for them (if necessary). They could whisper their answers to the teacher, who would compare them. Other techniques would work as well. Children could discuss which tags were accurate, which most important for describing a person: this should lead to matching of attributes with why you want to know about a person, for example, what job you want him to do. (See next page for more on this last idea.)

2. Who is it? From a given array of cards, the children try to guess who is being described. The cards could apply to just one person in the class, or to more than one person, for instance, "short, oldest boy in his family, brown," could apply to more than one child in some classes. The teacher could make up the sets, and then children could take turns making up sets for the others to figure out. This could be a game that the children continue to play among themselves, or with new children that come into the room.

3. What about this person? Given the tags for somebody, several questions can be asked: Which will always be true for this person; which will change? Which can we be sure of by ourselves; which do we have to

ask him or some other person about to be sure (for instance, how do we really know he is happy?) The teacher tells a story about a child that people thought was lazy or rich, or had some other apparent characteristic. How did the people treat him? How did he act? Suppose they were wrong? etc. Children might be asked to make up their own stories like this, to see if they get the point. (To explain a little more: a child might not be lazy or slow, but sick; might not be rich, just well dressed; might not be so strong, just loud and threatening.)

4. Sticks and stones. Can names hurt? Children are asked the different names people call each other. How does it feel to be called these names? Why do people do it? It is hoped that this discussion will be beyond people's just being bad or mean, but will get at some of the reasons why people attack others: jealousy, fear, to show off, etc. Teachers might need to make up some stories to suggest these different reason. THIS DISCUSSION IS A MUST, THOUGH JUST EXACTLY HOW TO BRING IT OFF MUST BE LEFT UP TO THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER.

5. This game is an extension of B-1, where the problem is to match a person's tags with the requirements of some task or role. The objective is to explore what information about a person is most relevant for different purposes.

   Phrase cards can be placed in front of the group, perhaps clipped to a chart from which they can be removed. Each card tells someting about a person. The cards are read. Then teacher or child draws a question from a box containing a number of questions and reads the question to the group. One child, or the group as a whole, has to decide on the phrase card or cards that best answer the question.

   Example: Steven is 8 years old
   fights a lot with his older brother
   likes to go to the library
   wears glasses
   teases little children

works hard when he has a job to do
likes to laugh a lot
is a Negro
plays baseball very well
says he does not want to play with girls

a. What would matter if you were choosing boys for a baseball team?

b. What phrases make you think he would be a good friend (or wouldn't)? Perhaps this question should be worded, "Would he make a good friend," or "Would you want him for a friend?" Why? (Girls presumably will not answer the same as boys. What about boys who do not play baseball?)

c. Would you like to have Steven for a reading partner?

d. Would Steven be a good person to babysit for his little sister, or to mind his little sister, while his mother goes to the store?

e. Which phrases about Steven can you apply to yourself?

f. Which will always be true? Which will change?

g. What are some things that we would like to know about Steven, but don't know yet, or can't tell from the cards? (Why he fights, etc.)

Of course, we are especially interested, in this example, in how Steven's being Negro will affect the children's choices. A child might say, for example, that Negroes always fight. This can be dealt with objectively by the class, perhaps set up as a problem for observation. It would point to the kind of thinking to be explored especially in the next phase of the course, on Groups.

It is to be hoped that there will be natural situations in the classroom that would lend themselves to this kind of thinking. However, it will take some experimenting to know how to develop them or to capitalize on them without shaming the children. Probably the teacher's working always with the children's own judgments, instead of moralizing or imposing her own judgment, will be a necessary strategy.

If the Steven example is discussed with the children, then the teacher should make up at least one more example, with a white child who would be similarly good for some things but not good or suited for some others.

6. Visitors. People could come in for the children to talk with. Perhaps the children could be told something about a visitor in advance, and then might try to tag him and guess or have questions as to other possible tags. If it were set up as sort of a mystery, it might be more fun to play. The idea here is to have the visitor really "come on" as a person, and for the children to have a really good discussion with him or her, maybe about how this person feels special or different from anyone else and how he feels like others. The visits should not be too long, perhaps part of a period or until a visit has reached its peak. Maybe the visitor can do something special, related to his special capabilities or interests. The visitors should naturally represent different races.

C. Ongoing activities

These are activities that could be started at any point from the first day on. Along with the activities that are first developed more systematically with the teacher, they could constitute a continuing set of options for the children's more independent work. The teacher will think of other activities regarding this list as just a starter.

1. Puppets. Children each make (if and when they want to) a puppet of themselves. Someone has suggested using the cardboard tube from a roll of toiletpaper, decorating a small bag, and tieing the bag around the tube. There should be a real effort to represent something distinctive about each individual, for example, a special hair ribbon or pin, as well as the child's general

features. On second thought, maybe this special feature bit is not so important, since a child's having made it himself will make the puppet personal.

We hope the puppets will be used in free play. We have imagined that they might be used to recreate or re-enact a situation that has occurred between two or more children that the class or some of the children want to examine, for example, a fight, an accident, how two people did a job together, etc. A particularly imaginative use would be for some children to act the parts of other children, how they think so-and-so would do something; the child who has been represented can then do it himself to show how he thinks he would do it, or how he has done it in the past. In this way the children could explore one another's thoughts and actions. This use of the puppets would undoubtedly have to be learned with the teacher.

2. Scrapbook. Each child would make a book about himself. It could have in it many things: a jump-up doll or picture of the child, made by drawing the figure and then cutting out the top of the page; a page about where the child lives; some things he has collected; a picture of someone he likes; something he did last summer; a drawing of all the members of his family, or people who live in his home; Things I am Afraid Of; A Wish; Things I am not Afraid Of; Things I Like; What I Don't like: an Is, Does, and Feels chart to be filled out a line at a time on different days; a photograph of the child taken by the teacher, or maybe by another child. IDEA: Much could happen in connection with different activities already suggested, if there were one or two simple cameras in the room. NOTE: dittoed sheets should be made available to children for different pages of scrapbook in a place where the children can get the pages when they want them

3. Tagging pictures. One or two pictures at a time could be placed somewhere in the room, and the children could decide individually or in teams how many of their tags fit the picture. These should be arresting pictures of people of all descriptions, including all races and /or

colors. Each child or team should keep a record of his tags for a given picture. At the end of a period, or sometime during a week, the class as a whole could compare tags for the picture or pictures. Then the picture should be changed for another round. The tagging, of course, is a point of departure for open discussion, so there should be some way to avoid too much emphasis on who can put on the most tags, though this aspect of it would be fun up to a certain point.

4. Comparisons. Children could study individual differences and similarities by measuring or observing all kinds of individual features: foot size, hand shape (draw around spread-out hand,) hair color, height, bone structure (in legs and feet, for example), eye color. Skin color would be especially important, though it should be done along with the others. One way might be to have children match their skin next to sheets of differently colored paper. A magnifying glass can be used by children for their observation of their own skin. The observation that no one is pure white, which might be discovered after most or all of the children have observed skin individually, could lead to the teacher's discussing melanin, how everyone has some of it, how it protects from sun, how whites get more of it in summer, and yellows, too (for instance, Bushmen.) See book, Red Man, White Man, African Chief, Marguerite Rush Lerner (Lerner Publications, 1966).

5. Contests. These would also be for comparisons. The children could run them themselves, probably even set some up, after the first one or two had been set up by the teacher and the children understood the purpose. Suggestions; standing broad jump; rope skipping; who can draw the best tree; who can do the most arithmetic problems in two minutes; etc. If there is enough variety, the same children will not be at the top or bottom of all lists; in fact, the idea might be simply to get into the top half of a list. Data from these contests, as well as from the comparisons in 4, could be entered in the children's individual scrapbooks.

6. Books. Numerous books should be out for the children to read. Perhaps after some children have looked at them or read one on their own, these children could be convened as a group to discuss what they have experienced. Books about whites will not be hard to find! Some good books that include Negro children are listed at the end of Section II of this report in the Bibliography for Children.

II. GROUPS

Before suggesting specific activities, let us discuss the strategy that is appropriate in this section or phase of the course. We can do this by commenting on several of the hypotheses that Robin Williams formulated from his classic review of the research on the reduction of intergroup tensions.

> 52. A general principle of approach is that, except in acute crisis situations, problems of group conflict are usually most readily resolved by indirection rather than by frontal assault. In propaganda, for example, direct arguments tend to present a sharp issue which arouses maximum resistance; a more effective procedure is to emphasize common aims and suggest group integration as a means for their attainment.
>
> 64. Hostility is decreased by any activity which leads members of conflicting groups to identify their own values and life-activities in individuals of the other group. To be most effective this requires devices for inducing personal identification before the introduction of group labels.
>
> 80. Personal association of members of different groups is most effective in reducing hostility and increasing understanding when the focus of interaction is upon a common interest, goal, or task rather than upon intergroup association as such.
>
> 81. Increased concrete knowledge of the life of a minority group, especially of particular persons whose behavior does not fit stereotyped conceptions, tends to break up rigid stereotypes and under some conditions to diffuse or decrease hostility.[3]

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[3] Williams, Robin M., Jr., The Reduction of Intergroup Tension, New York: Social Science Research Council, 1947.

A teacher reading these propositions before she has commenced any part of this course in a class might feel that her pupils were not involved in intergroup conflict and therefore that the propositions did not apply to her students. However, we anticipate that after the class has started talking freely, in the ways encouraged by the activities that have already been suggested, it will be evident that many, if not most, of the children in any group have misconceptions, stereotypes, and prejudices that could well be the seeds of serious conflicts.

The last three of the four propositions cited do not need much explication. #64 supplies part of the reason why the course has concentrated on individuals before turning more directly to groups. #80 accounts for the task and gave orientation to many of the activities, and it suggests two kinds of focus for the groups phase of the children's study. One is the tasks the children will share in this phase; for example, getting information about the various groups represented in the classroom. The second is the larger, though possibly more remote, frame of reference, the common goals and interests the children share as members of American society. Some of these latter will come across most clearly simply as common interests of children; but others, like equal voting rights, must be inferred more from the activities of youths and adults the children learn about. In any case, the focus should not be on different groups' "getting along together," "living together," "tolerating each other," and so on, but on the concrete work, rights, and interests that individual members of the various groups are concerned with.

In the adult world, we are not so sure now of the wisdom or even the meaning of proposition #52. Frontal assaults seem to be necessary to win rights and opportunities in the economic and political spheres, at least, so this proposition should not be interpreted as calling for a slow and indirect approach to all problems of intergroup conflict. Psychologically, however, it must be recognized that these assaults have increased fear and hostility in many quarters. The word assault here can be taken more or less literally, or it can be used, as Williams meant it, to mean an argument directly attacking a prejudiced attitude. In the context of primary-grade children's learning about themselves and others, we think proposition #52 is useful. Different groups should be identified, explored, and appreciated, but not focused on to such an extent, or in such a way, that the interests the groups have in common are lost sight of.

1. The teacher may discuss groups briefly with the children and help them list on the board all the groups they can think of. "Groups" will probably be used in a very loose way at first. Some groups named might be what are often called "aggregates" or sets, for example, (all) girls, farmers, children, whites, etc.; that is, groups of people who have something in common. Other groups named would come closer to the sociologist's idea of a group, for example, families, the class, a union, a Cub Scout den, and so forth. In these groups, people interact together in a regular way. We do not know yet just how useful this distinction might be for the children, and it has been suggested here more for the teacher's clarification than for theirs. Perhaps the main idea to develop is that people think of themselves or others as belonging to various groups; this would include both aggregates and groups in the more specialized sense.

2. Large sheets of paper could be placed at various stations around the room, each representing a different group that

the children might belong to: boys, girls, scouts, second graders, children over 4'tall (or whatever the median for the class is,) blue eyes,brown eyes, brown skin, white skin, yellow skin. Some groups might be represented even though no children from the class belong; these will lend themselves to certain discussions. The children could sign their names on each sheet that stands for a group they belong to. This might take several days, while other activities are taking place. When the sign-ups are completed, all the children in a given group could stand in front of their sheet while the rest of the class discusses what they have in common and the ways the members of the group are different from one another. The children in the group should give their ideas about it too. Some groups might include all the children in the class, and the teacher too, for example, Americans. Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish would be important groups to represent. These discussions could be spaced out over some time; certainly they could not all be held on one day.

3. The children could record in their scrapbooks a list of all the groups each belongs to. It is important that the children realize that each belongs to a number of groups, and they might compare lists for this purpose.

4. Which groups can you join and which do you have to be "born into"? The children might try to figure this out and to work out the criteria for membership in groups you can join. Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish, or other religious denomination, can be seen as something one is usually born into, but that one can change for himself. The children can consider what groups they would like to join someday, and how they might do it: clubs, families, language groups, neighborhoods, etc. Different children might work out or find out about the criteria for different groups.

5. How do you get to be an American and what good is it? Maybe the parents of someone in the group were naturalized citizens; the children could learn about the process from them directly or through their child in the class; even better if there were more than one family. If there are no naturalized citizens, the teacher could tell about it. What about all the babies born in the hospitals everyday? etc.

As to what it's good for, the children could tell what they think are the rights of all Americans, and they could check these ideas with other people by interviewing or a simple questionnaire. Probably there will be disagreement about some rights, and this would be worth discussing, though not necessarily to produce consensus. Two of the most clear-cut and symbolic rights, the right to vote and the right to a fair trial, could be dramatized in the classroom on some question of significance to the children. One way would be to establish these rights in the classroom for certain questions or problems, and then arbitrarily to take the rights away from some group of children, for example, the smallest ones.

The children could learn about CORE or a similar group. (We need to get a story and pictures for the teacher, perhaps one of the photographic documentaries now in the bookstores.) The emphasis should be on whites and Negroes working together to register new voters. The children could dramatize helping an old person to a registration center etc. In line with the indirect approach of proposition #52, it would be best not to dwell too much on the efforts of whites to resist Negro registration; the white children in the classroom might identify with them. Instead, the focus should be on the integrated effort to secure the rights of all, with perhaps some explanation about some whites not understanding that the rights belong to all. Of course, if some children in the class actually know about the resistance of the whites, then this should be discussed more fully, at least with those children.

6. The children might know or learn about other groups in which whites and Negroes were working together to secure their rights. METCO and local fair-housing groups are obvious examples. It should be clear not only that individuals from both races are working in these groups, but that they are trying to secure rights for both races: the right to go to good schools and to have children of all races for one's classmates; the right to live in a neighborhood of one's choice and to have neighbors of all races. Again, a positive approach will be less likely to

precipitate resistance. Perhaps some adults connected with METCO or a fair-housing group could visit with the children. Some children will have been in METCO classrooms (program for transporting Negro children from the city to suburban schools).

7. If it has not come up in connection with an earlier activity, the children might want to explore the racial background of the class. The main point of this would be that everyone, except the Indians (and even they a long, long time ago!) came to this land from another continent: the yellow people from Asia, the brown from Africa, and the white from Europe. Some representation of this could be made on the children's group sign-up sheets, or ribbons could be strung between a globe and pictures of Americans of different races. If pictures of Africans, Asians, and Europeans are used in this connection, we suggest they show people in modern dress.

   A class may want to go farther and make an ethnic breakdown of their origins. If there were hostilities between different white ethnic groups in the class or neighborhood, for example between Irish and Italians, this might be especially important to examine. If the ethnic identities are not particularly important or meaningful to the children, a breakdown by ethnic groups probably would not be very significant, especially since the Negroes in America cannot accurately be ranged alongside Italians, English, Greeks, Chinese, and so on, as an ethnic group. It would be misleading and in the long run unfortunate to rely on stereotyped notions of the "contributions" of different ethnic groups to American life. We are more concerned with present realities.

8. Picture sorting or classifying games could be played, where (a) the children guess what all the pictures have in common, or (b) they decide which picture doesn't belong with the others according to some criterion. The children could play these games using children instead of pictures, for example, three short children and a tall child. To complicate it, they could then tag all the pictures or children to see their diversity and similarity along other lines than that used as the criterion.

9. What do families have in common? The children could examine pictures of life in different families around the world, and could compare notes on their own families, to find basic simi-

larities. The emphasis might be on needs that families try to satisfy and needs they have. A similar but somewhat simpler activity would compare children around the world, with questions about children's needs.

10. Norms and Values. Presumably there already will have been much discussion at various points about people's ideas of what they and others should or should not do (their norms) and their ideas of what is important or what matters to them (their values.) Here we would like to have the children think more systematically about different groups' norms and values. The authors should state at the outset that they do not conceive of the problem simply as one of inducing children to appreciate different norms and values of different cultural groups, especially Negro and white. The problem is equally, if not more, that members of one group misperceive the norms and values of another and think the gap between their groups is greater than it actually is. It must be understood that we are saying this within the framework of contemporary American society and with special reference to Negro and white norms and values. If we slice American society along lines other than racial, for instance, males vs. females, children vs. adults, lower vs. middle socio-economic class (or poor vs. affluent,) urban vs. rural, then significant differences of norms and values do appear. Moreover, the fact that a greater proportion of Negroes than whites are poor and live in inner-city ghettos makes it appear that Negroes' norms and values are different from whites'. However, it must not be forgotten that the Negro poor are demanding some of the same things that affluent whites already have, so again there are underlying similarities. We are not sure how to clarify young children's thinking about such complex questions, but we feel that we should at least probe for their misconceptions and stereotypes.

It is probably not necessary to use the terms norms and values with the children, though we would like to find out whether knowing the terms would facilitate the children's development of the concepts they represent. The children might start talking about people's "shoulds" (their norms) and later discuss the somewhat more difficult subject of what is "important" to people.

a. The children can list all of the shoulds and shouldn'ts they think apply to them.

b. They can consider whether the same norms apply to boys and to girls, and to children and adults. Differences with respect to work, play, and aggression might be fairly easy to grasp.

c. They can then look at the different groups represented by their sign-up sheets and ask whether any of them have different norms from other groups. (If boys and girls or children and adults have already been done, a review of this would establish what kind of question the children are dealing with.) Religious practices could be discussed in this connection. Eventually, racial or color groups should be discussed: what are the norms of each? Our position is that in this society their norms are basically the same, in so far as children would be able to comprehend them. Some forms of language or speech are different, if one wants to include this under norms. Ironically, the great exception to our generalization about the norms of whites and Negroes has to do with their behavior toward individuals of the opposite race, which are in fact quite different, though perhaps parallel in some respects, whites discriminating against Negroes and Negroes feeling and increasingly expressing resentment and hostility against whites. One way to approach this from the present activity might be to raise questions about the norms of different groups toward each other: boys to girls and vice versa, Catholics to Protestants and vice versa, children and adults, blue-eyed children and brown-eyed children, white-, brown-, and yellow-skinned people, Irish and Italians, teachers and pupils. If relations between the groups in the classroom can be represented as the ideal, then discriminatory or prejudiced behavior can be thought of as departures from the ideal. Undoubtedly, there will have been departures in the classroom too, though, and these must also be recognized.

Some norms that we think are the same for whites and Negroes generally, although they vary for individuals within each group:

Children and adults should respect one another.
People should help one another.
Everybody should get his turn or fair share.
People should not take or damage others' property.
People should not hurt each other.

Some values that we think are the same for whites and Negroes:

Beauty
Friendship
Understanding
Self-respect
Fun

Of course, this has to come from the children in their own language. The aim in these activities 10 a, b, and c, is some realization that there are different norms and values from one group to another, but that the differences are more pronounced along lines other than racial. Hence white boys and Negro boys might be able to see that they share certain norms and values that distinguish them from white and Negro girls; white and Negro children could see that they share certain norms and values that distinguish them from adults; poor children could see that they have norms and values, or priorities, that distinguish them from rich children; and so on. At the same time, bases must be developed for enabling the children of any one of these contrasted groups -- boys or girls, children or adults, rich or poor, Catholics or Protestants -- to realize (i) that the norms and values of the contrasted group seem just as right to them, and (ii) that there are underlying values that all agree on.

Teachers should have stories and pictures from which children could make these inferences about the norms and values of different groups, especially whites and Negroes.

d. Many intergroup problems stem from one group's misperception of the norms and values of the other group. Sometimes the trouble lies in not recognizing different norms and values, and at other times it lies in attributing different norms and values to another group when in fact they are the same, at least at some underlying level. Both phenomena can occur simultaneously, as in the case of a teacher who does not perceive that certain pupils are not motivated by the prospect of distant rewards, but at the same time does not see that there are other rewards of discovery, companionship, and so on, that the teacher and the children might respond to in common. With regard to children's perception of one another, the problem is especially likely to be the latter one. Because the other group looks different, because their speech sounds different, because their neighborhood is different, and maybe some of the games the children play are different; and because adults have signaled that these differences are important, and have attached negative feeling and labels to these differences -- children of one group come to perceive those of the other as alien in all of the ways that matter to them. CAN CHILDREN AT THIS POINT IN THE COURSE REFLECT ABOUT THESE THINGS? We think they can. We have a tape recording of first-grade white children talking about a Negro boy in their class, who they first thought was different (categorically different) because he was brown. They "didn't like him" for that reason and because (as they said)their parents were concerned about colored people's moving into their neighborhood. Then they talked about how they wanted to do something with him and didn't know what to do at first, so they hit him (half in play, half in earnest) and then they had found out he was O.K., and now they like him. Obviously, the teacher had played an important part in setting up a classroom where this could happen;

but that is the object of the present course. Where we would want to go even farther than the teacher did in this case is in having the children explicitly recognize the process of their misperceptions and later re-evaluation, rather than just concluding that a certain individual had turned out to be something other than what they had first thought he would be. Probably they would need a number of experiences like the one described above in order to generalize about them. While our suggestion that children be encouraged to discuss their changing perceptions of differences is designed to facilitate recognition of real life experiences, the exact manner and timing of the children's generalizing about them must be left up to the teacher's judgment.

III. INTERACTIONS

The fact that we are now focusing on interactions does not mean that the children have not been discussing them in earlier phases of this course. It does signify, however, that we are now aiming for a still more complex level of thinking, where the children use our whole model to think about interactions. In other words, we now want them to look at an interaction in terms of the differences and similarities between the individuals involved, their norms and values, how what they did or might do is a function of these factors, and what the consequences will be. Whether children can really use a "model" like this is a question we intend to research. However, we will need to try it in many ways before we submit the question to more formal investigation, and we ask teachers to join with us in this.

This phase of the course depends even more than the others on the teacher's taking advantage of events and situations that it is hard for us to anticipate. We have suggested only enough to get the teacher started in looking for these opportunities.

1. Establishing the meaning of "interaction." The teacher could write the word on the board and call attention to the action part of it, asking for examples of action: football, writing, cooking, etc. Then the prefix "inter" could be explained in terms of actions between or with two or more persons. The children could go back to the list and decide which ones were interactions. The trouble here will be that almost anything they have listed could be an interaction, so some further distinctions will be necessary:

Things one does by oneself most of the time	Things that MUST be done with someone else to be done at all	Things that are more fun or done better with others
Brushing teeth	Football	Going to the movies
Getting dressed	Fighting	Going to a picnic
	Shaking hands, etc.	

Even these distinctions will break down after a point, but they should get the children thinking about interaction.

2. Discussion of pictures of people working, playing, standing on a corner, hollering at each other, etc. Which ones are interactions, and why are the people interacting instead of just acting alone?

   These pictures should have all kinds of people doing all kinds of things.

   Questions should include the people's feelings about one another and what they are doing, and whether or not there are different ways of accomplishing whatever it is that they seem to want.

   The tag games could be played with individuals in some of these pictures, partly to emphasize what is not known about them.

   Dramatic play would be a way to explore and express ideas about the pictures. For example, just seeing two men working on a brick wall together is not as convincing as playing the jobs of mixing cement, carrying bricks, etc.

3. Have two children in front of the class or group. One walks by the other, and they exchange greetings: "Hello, how are you?," etc. What was the interaction? Try to get at the idea that interactions can be mainly verbal, and develop ideas about asking for help, getting directions, sharing news and ideas, etc.

   To focus attention on the feeling tone of voices, the children could pretend to be speaking rudely, politely, angrily, kindly, etc.

4. Freeze. After some experience with the above activities, the game of Freeze should be meaningful in terms of interactions. The teacher must first explain the rule: whenever she calls "Freeze," the children stop whatever they are doing and hold their positions without moving. They must not move until the teacher (or a child leader) calls "melt." If the children have not played this game before in class, it is advised that they try freezing a few times so that they will get accustomed to it enough to listen for further directions. Now the idea is to examine interactions that were taking place at the moment freeze was called. At first, the aim could be just to sample different ones. Later, the children might take an inventory of all the interactions at a given time. Finally, the teacher might have spotted certain interactions that would be especially profitable for the class to explore. Discretion must be used about which ones can be discussed without shaming a child, and these can be talked about along with others that occurred at the same time.

   Some of the interactions captured in this way could be reenacted with the children's puppets.

   Some of the interactions could be completed by other children, or by the principals themselves, showing what they thought would come next, or with different possible outcomes.

   A period of free play would probably be useful to get things going before freeze was called.

5. Collaboration. The purpose here is simply to focus attention on, or draw together, all different examples of collaboration. We have used this word, rather than the more familiar co-operation, to signal the fact that a special kind of interaction is involved.

   a. The children could make lists of all the acts of collaboration in their homes. They could also make guesses about collaboration in other children's homes, perhaps homes shown in the pictures of families suggested earlier (Groups, #9.) They might play a game of guessing about things in one another's homes.

b. The children could explore a complex situation in which a variety of collaborations typically occur, for example, a hospital. Pictures of doctors, nurses, and patients, including Negroes and whites in all categories, could be displayed for children's discussion of their special jobs, capabilities, training, needs, feelings, and so on. The teacher can then help the children to set up the classroom to resemble a hospital floor. One simple way is to use desks and chairs to create two intersecting corridors and for rooms.

The children can then decide with the teacher what each room is to be; for example, an X-ray room, an operating room, a bedroom, and a kitchen. Children can be stationed in each room to play the roles. The teacher can help to start the action by feigning sympathy and dismay toward a "sick" child and asking other children to help get the sick child to the hospital. From then on, many things can happen, including the diagnosis, consultation of doctors about the child's problem, preparation for operation, operation, care in the ward, loneliness of the patient, visits by various people, and so on. The action might not go very well the first time, but it should be viewed as a learning experience, not a finished performance; and a second or third different play, with some switching of roles from one time to another, would be worth-while.

Two kinds of thinking about this experience should be encouraged. One is the working out of specific problems that come up, like how someone feels about being treated in a certain way, whose job it is to take the patient from one room to another, etc. The other kind of thinking which would take place after two or more plays is a summary analysis of the kinds of interaction that take place: different kinds of collaboration, exchange of information and feeling, etc. The children could make lists of these, maybe adding to them after another play. The children could also list the qualifications of the various roles; these lists might have been started before any playing, when the children were considering the pictures of people in the hospital, and then added to after the plays.

This activity has two possible bearings on intergroup education. One would depend on the class's actually being integrated, in which case the interactions of the children themselves could be very valuable if they were subsequently reflected on by the children. The second would not depend on the class's itself being integrated, but it would require some live contact with persons of different races or colors; viz., the children's realization that the qualifications of the different jobs in a hospital are, or should be, independent of race and color. We suggest that hospital personnel, for example, a Negro doctor and a white nurse, be invited to the classroom after the children have played hospital enough to (i) have some questions and (ii) be able to appreciate the qualifications of the persons visiting. As with earlier visitors, some tagging could be done both before and after the visit, in order to encourage the children's making and later evaluating hypotheses about the visitors. Once again, the focus should be on the jobs and the individuals filling them, not on race as such, but the race or color of the individuals should be explicitly recognized and discussed at some point.

This activity has been suggested in some detail in order to convey the idea of such an activity. Many different situations could be approached in a similar way, for instance, a building project, putting out a fire, etc. We think the hospital situation particularly lends itself to an extended exploration of interactions between persons with different skills, feelings, and so on, but others may have equal or greater potential for a certain class.

c. Collaboration Problems. This activity might be used before either the listing of collaborations in the home or the exploration of a complex social situation. Relatively simple problems could be presented for small teams of children to solve, and then the interaction could be analyzed. The problems could include moving a heavy object, setting up a camp site (division of labor, etc.) preventing an escape from a prison, making a newcomer feel at home, and so on. The children themselves could make up problems for others to solve, and they could show different ways of solving the same problem.

6. Hostility. Examples of hostility might have been discussed from the first day on, but here it is to be brought into deliberate focus.

   a. The children could examine pictures showing all different kinds of hostilities between people, both adults and kids: fighting between children, punishment of a child, war, angry looks and gestures, forcibly excluding someone from a group, defacing someone's home, and so on. The people should include all combinations of races or colors. (i) The children could try to range the pictures from the least to the most hostile acts. This would be somewhat arbitrary, but the attempt to think about the criterion would itself be valuable. Children could talk about experiences they have had, in order to assess the significance of the different acts. (ii) The children could speculate about the causes and consequences of the various acts; this too would presumably figure in their weighing the relative seriousness of the acts. The children should consider whether it was necessary for each happening to end the way it did. It it is negative prejudice, with which we are most concerned in this study, then it involves (i) general feelings of hostility toward most or all persons in a given group, regardless of their individual qualities, and (ii) general beliefs about the inferior capabilities, motives, and other personal characteristics of all or most members of the group, regardless of their indivdual qualities. To the children, this can probably be seen best in operational terms: because someone is brown, or white, or Catholic, or Jewish, he is considered bad, or dumb, or dirty, or an enemy, without really knowing or recognizing what he is like as an individual.

Some clear-cut examples could be discussed with the children in order to nail down the definition. The teacher must remember not to zero in too directly on children in the classroom who have prejudices, but rather to involve everyone again in the common task. For example, the problem of how a class would react to a newcomer who was prejudiced, and then how they could help him understand individuals in the class better (for instance, by playing the tag games,) might be an appropriate focus. Dramatic play would make this more real.

b. The causes of prejudice. It is difficult to anticipate how much understanding young children might have of how the prejudiced person's bad feelings about himself or his own life get converted into prejudice against others. Some transfer of thinking from the case study of a fighter might be possible here. A story could be told about a child who was not a very good ball player, who was afraid of not being included in the group's game, and who tried to stir up prejudice against another boy of a different race in order to get him out of the game. The children could analyze the reasons for the boy's feelings and actions. The teacher will know better than we can at this point how much further she can pursue this line of thinking about prejudice.

We can readily imagine children's understanding that lack of information about people is a cause of prejudice, and how a single frightening or unhappy experience can result in a generalized fear. For example, the children could hear a story about Susie Smith, a little Negro girl in kindergarten, who gets picked on and beaten up by a white boy in her class. Susie's parents have told her she had better be careful around white children. What do the children think Susie's feelings will be about whites? Why? What could have happened to make them different? What can be done now?

Who can tell a similar story about a little white girl and a Negro boy? Of course, just discussing this hostility is not enough, but discussing whether it could have been a different form of hostility than the one shown, or whether a quite different interaction could have occurred could be instructive. This must not be just a moralistic, Boy Scout discussion, but should realize the difficulties of avoiding hostilities, the powerful feelings people have, the trouble communicating, and so on. Perhaps punishment by authorities should be distinguished from other kinds of aggression, though it is hard to draw the line in many cases, both within and outside the family.

c. Tape recordings of incidents could be analyzed by the children, for example, a name-calling incident that results in a fight and an incident in which some children are plotting to "get" another child that they don't like, for some unspecified reason. The teacher could make the recordings by having some children dramatize each incident, and then the remainder of the class could do the analysis, with feedback from the children who made it.

d. Case sudy of a child who is a fighter. The children could be given a good deal of information about a child (of course, not one they know) who fights a lot and be asked to reason about why he fights and what they would do about it. A school guidance counselor, or someone in a community agency, might help the teacher to work up an appropriate case.

7. Prejudice. As with hostility, to which prejudice is obviously related, this is not the first time we expect prejudice to be discussed, but it is now to be brought into more specific focus.

a. Perhaps beginning earlier in the course , the children could make a record of different types or incidents of prejudice they have discussed, for example, name calling; discrimination in employment, housing, recreation, or voting;

ambushing someone; talking meanly about people. As the first two or three go on the list, the teacher might just comment that these are examples of "prejudice," without explaining what the word means. Then during the present phase of the course, the class could try to infer what it means from their list. The concept is a very difficult one; it depends on many of the concepts that the course has already tried to develop. Prejudice has been called "a lazy way of coping with a difference."[4] If one story is not in itself going to result in the children's understanding of the dynamics of such an experience, it is an example that the teacher can amplify.

b. Can the children begin to realize that their parents' feelings play a part in what they think and feel themselves? We do not know, but here are two stories to experiment with. The first is to explore the more general idea that parents teach their children attitudes toward people; the second is more specific as to prejudice.

   i. A story about a family where the mother and father teach their child to be very friendly to new people they meet, to shake hands, say hello, and so forth. Contrasted with a family that instructs their child to be very cautious with strangers and stay away from them, not go riding with them, etc. How will the stranger consequently act toward them? Which is the best way to teach the children? (There are arguments on both sides!) Why do the two families teach their children differently? (Maybe the critical-experience idea of the previous activity would have something to do with this.)

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[4] Prof. Richard Jones, Brandeis University, in a Working Party meeting.

ii. The Birthday Party. We thought of this originally as an idea for a little film to make for the children. We have not yet made the film, but perhaps there would be a good way to tell or dramatize the story, which is based on a real happening. A class is excited one day, because they are going to have a birthday party for one of the children. They all prepare things for the party, and then it starts. While they are having a good time together, two of the children get into a scrap about a toy they both want to play with, and one says to the other, "Well, you're not coming to the party this afternoon, so there!" It turns out that the birthday boy's mother has invited only the white children (or the Negro children, or the rich children whatever the appropriate in-group is for a given class.) How do different children in the class feel about it: the children not invited, the one who taunted another child, the child whose birthday it was? Maybe the children could play these parts, and the part of the mother, too, and act out what they think could happen next.

c. The arbitrariness of discrimination. This aspect of prejudice could be emphasized by a teacher's announcing one day that she had observed a boy shoving his way through the hall or the classroom, and boys were just too pushy, so henceforth boys had to stay in their seats and only girls could move freely around the classroom. Another day a similar thing could be done with the girls, perhaps forbidding the girls to talk to one another, on the ground that some girl had been talking too much and girls were just too talky. Whether it is all boys or all girls, only boys or only girls, the particular basis for the teacher's conclusion, etc., could be discussed after a suitable period of time, perhaps a half hour on each occasion, for the children to feel the discrimination.

9. Movies. The children could draw pictures in sequences to show all kinds of cause and effect relationships between different individuals. They could provide different beginnings or endings for a given segment, guess the meaning of one another's movies, etc.

10. Incompleted pictures. The teacher displays a part of a picture, preferably from a picture that can be cut in half or so divided that when one looks at one part alone he has one idea of what is going on, and when the other part is shown he has a different idea. Ideally, each of the two parts shown alone would produce a different interpretation from that which was possible when the whole picture was seen at once. The children could discuss the parts separately and then put them together. Which interpretation of the picture is true? Why? How does having the whole picture, or both sides, change the story sometimes? List the facts obtainable from just part #1 and then part #2 separately, then what is known from the whole picture. This could also be done with picture sequences.

    A mystery picture can be put up somewhere in the room, for children to make guesses about before they see the complete version of it. This can be handled similarly to the game with tagging a picture in the room.

EVALUATION

It is expected that continuous evaluation of the children's progress will be possible in this course, for the reason that many, if not most, of the activities in each phase require behaviors that should reveal much about the children's concepts and attitudes. A few of the activities will lend themselves to direct comparisons of the performances of different children; for example, the children's scrapbooks, the tags different children put on a given picture, the pictures different children draw to show the beginning or the end of a picture sequence, and so on. Most of the activities, however, will result in now one, and at another time a different, child acting or interpreting a story or analyzing an interaction in the classroom. The teacher might keep a log of the children's study, perhaps recording critical comments or incidents after the name of each child on pages representing different types of performance: interpretation of a story or picture of a collaborative interaction, between persons of different groups, or races; interpretation of a hostile interaction; role playing the feelings and actions of an individual of another group or race; and so on. Since the course has not, at the time of this writing, been tried in any exhaustive sense with children, it is not yet possible to state realistic expectations for the children's performances. Preliminary objectives have, however, been indicated in relationship to the proposed activities, and these could serve as guidelines for the teacher's observations. For example, a child's analysis of a hostile interaction between individuals of two races (or other groups) would ideally include the following:

a. Accurate recognition of the feelings and actions of individuals on both sides of the conflict.

b. Recognition of ways in which individuals on each side were like others of their own race, or group, and different from others of their own race or group. Likewise, recognition of ways that individuals on the two sides were alike and different.

c. Recognition of some reasons or causes for the action on both sides, including especially norms and expectations directed toward the opposite sides of the conflict.

d. Prediction of some consequences of the interaction for persons on both sides of the conflict.

e. Formulation of a problem and common values that the two sides have, and suggestion of an alternative action that could have been or might be taken; this suggestion should be supported by an example the child is familiar with.

A basic question for research is the extent to which children at different ages or stages of development can generate a set of considerations like the above from an internalized model of concepts like that which has been used to structure the course. Our preliminary expectations do not place much confidence in a primary-grade child's being able to consider all of the above in a spontaneous or undirected reaction to a picture, story, or actual episode, even after prolonged instruction. This remains open to research, however, and we do have some present confidence that children in the primary grades can improve their capacity for responding intelligently to a guided probing of the different considerations the model represents: individuals, groups, norms and values, expectations, causes and effects, etc. The evaluator would, of course, have the considerable problem of designing this probing so that it cued the childre to the appropriate levels or directions of response, without at the same time leading them to the specific responses that the teacher or experimenter would prefer to hear.

Ultimately, one does want children to be able to generate spontaneously considerations like those suggested by the model, and it is for this reason that we must look to working as well with older children, or with these same primary-grade children when they are older. Indeed, it is not an all or nothing affair, and we hope to be surprised to some degree even by the younger children!

A before-and-after evaluation of the course might be based on the following two inventories:

1. A recording, both before and after the course, of children's spontaneous reactions to a collection of mixed Negro and white dolls. The dolls might be placed in a somewhat neutral or ambiguous setting, for instance, in front of a house the first time, and at the beach the second time (the order could be reversed for half the children, to eliminate the effect of the particular setting.) The children should be recorded in small groups. If several classes were involved, it would be feasible to use a mixed design of after-only and before-and-after exposure to the dolls, to control for the effect of previous exposure.

   Experience with these dolls has shown that they evoke considerable effective response from the children, as well as a variety of ideas about the kinds of association that the children think are possible between white and Negroes.

ii. A systematic probing of children's responses to a picture story of an interracial situation, perhaps not one that has already resulted in actual hostility or collaboration, but an incompleted interaction that could go either way. The kinds of considerations indicated above for the teacher's analysis would be appropriate for the structuring and analysis of this inventory. Again, it should be conducted in small groups, since experience shows that the children are most likely to respond freely in this situation.

Finally, let us again emphasize that the course which has been proposed here is experimental and as yet largely untried. It is the Working Party's hope to work closely with teachers in the further development and systematic evaluation of the activities, the materials, and the basic rationale.

C. THE TEACHING OF THE LOWER GRADE UNIT

1. Teaching during the Working Party Year

As previously mentioned in A, Overview, two members of the Lower Grade Working Party were full-time teachers during the 1966-67 academic year. Miss Melissa Tillman taught a kindergarten class at the New School for Children in Roxbury (the Negro ghetto area of inner-city Boston) which was composed of Negro and white children of all socio-economic strata from both Roxbury itself and Boston suburbs. The New School for Children is a new, privately financed, and privately administered school which in 1966-67 began with a kindergarten and grades 1-3, but which expects to develop eventually into a full seven-grade elementary school. Mrs. Wilkinson taught a first grade at the Lesley-Ellis School in Cambridge, Massachusetts, which is the private laboratory school of Lesley College, a preparatory school for elementary teachers. It draws heavily for its student body on the academic community of Cambridge, but nevertheless has children from a wide variety of backgrounds.

Throughout the Working Party year, Mrs. Wilkinson and Miss Tillman experimented with ideas developed in the Working Party and reported back to the group on the success of those ideas. The IS, DOES, and FEELS card-sorting game, for instance, was developed largely as a result of Mrs. Wilkinson's classroom experience. Almost invariably, classroom experimentation demonstrated the necessity for modification and clarification in the Working Party's ideas about what could be done with the material and how it was to be done. Very often ideas were tried out in the classroom after repeated modifications.

Teaching during the Working Party year was, however, somewhat hamstrung by two factors. The first was the fact that the members of the Working Party were initially selected without regard for whether or not they were full-time teachers during 1966-67. The reasoning of the staff at that time was that it would be helpful to have members in the Working Party who had some experience with curriculum development; that people who had taught at some time but currently were involved in curriculum development or teacher education would be more likely to bridge the gap between classroom practice and the intellectual exercise required to develop the proposed unit; and that classrooms in which to try materials out could always be found when needed. None of the foregoing three points proved to be untrue. What was discovered, however, was that given time limitations, instantly accessible classrooms were desperately needed to be able to try out an idea as soon as it was proposed in a Working Party meeting. Since Mrs. Wilkinson did not join the group until more than halfway through the year, much of the time the Working Party had at its ready disposal only one classroom teacher. So it is that, while it is certainly necessary to be able to intellectualize about the unit one is creating, and while it is difficult to find people who can bridge the gap between intellectual-orientedness and classroom acumen, the 1966-67 Lower Grade Working Party suffered from an abundance of intellectualization at the expense of translation into classroom practice.

A second factor was that in the course of the 1966-67 academic year, the group met only 18 times. For two reasons the year was planned to include meetings only every other week: in order to stay within the budget allotted for the Working Party; and to provide an opportunity for longer, more intense meetings in which, it was felt, more work could be accomplished than in the previous year's experience with weekly two-hour meetings. More work was accomplished in the longer, more intense meetings; however, half of the year went by (in the form of merely nine meetings) before the unit had acquired enough of a theoretical framework for the group to be able to move on to develop classroom activities for immediate tryout. This left only another nine meetings in which to report tryouts back to the group as a whole for revision.

These two factors greatly influenced the degree to which intensive or extensive classroom tryouts were possible during the academic year. So also a case began to build up for the importance of more thorough experimentation with the unit during the summer of 1967, after the dissolution of the Working Party itself. The mistake of dwelling too heavily on nonclassroom teachers is one from which the project can learn in future curriculum development. In the second case, given the limitations imposed by time and money, the value of longer, more intense meetings did in fact outweigh the disadvantage of less frequent meetings.

The teaching of Mrs. Wilkinson and Miss Tillman was invaluable. In the early stages of unit development, it probably is essential that classroom tryouts should be conducted by Working Party members. It is difficult enough in the early stages to discover what works reasonably well with children, without having to deal at the same time with on-the-spot teacher education. To have drawn into classroom tryouts teachers for whom the assumptions of the project were completely new would have been to bog down impossibly the development of materials for children. Some might protest at this point that ideally unit construction and teacher education should proceed simultaneously from the beginning. This is probably true, but not within the confines of a year's limit on the time allotted for the construction of materials for children. First of all, much was learned within Working Party meetings which has been, and will be, of value in later teacher education; consensus in Working Party dialogue was not always readily come by. Secondly, it is probably true that the single most important ingredient for teacher education is compelling, workable, highly detailed materials for children.

2. Teaching in the Brookline-Lexington-Newton Summer 1967 Title III Program

From Wednesday, July 5, through Tuesday, August 15, 1967, the school systems of Brookline, Newton, and Lexington, Massachusetts, all suburbs of Boston, although the first two are cities in their own right, collaborated to sponsor a summer program for children financed by Title III funds of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Two hundred eighty children who were completing grades 1-5 in June, 1967, attended the summer program, coming from the three communities in proportion to the communities' relative populations. The program was conducted at the Heath School in Brookline.

The program's title, "Innovations in Learning," embodies the spirit of both its conception and its execution. This was designed to be a program in which the teachers involved would choose what was to be taught and the participating children chose what they wanted to learn. Teachers in the three school systems applied and were chosen for the program on the basis of having well-developed, exciting idea, unit, or approach to subject matter which they personally would like to try out. The six-week summer program offered an ideal opportunity for the teacher, in an atmosphere less pressured and full of distractions than the regular school year, to try out his or her pet project in order to develop it for normal school year use. Thus it was that the course offerings included cooking; swimming; creative writing; "theater games"; individualized reading; puppet-making; woodworking; an Educational Development Corporation upper elementary social studies unit; mathematics; a unit on the Hopi Indians; and a project combining crafts, writing, and science in which children researched thoroughly the biological and ecological facts about an animal, then made a papier-mâché scale model of the animal, and finally wrote an imaginative story about the animal in the creative writing class.

At the crux of the program lay the idea that only the teachers teaching in the program itself would decide what would be taught, and the child would choose in which of the offerings he wished to participate. In addition to the participating teachers' own projects, a few developed by organizations other than the three school systems were to be considered. On 11 May, 1967, Dr. Joseph C. Grannis presented an outline of the unit to a meeting of the Title III teachers assembled to decide which curricula would be offered, and two weeks later the Center staff was informed that the unit would be taught. The final two Working Party meetings, however, were held in May at a time when it was not yet clear that the unit would be tried out at the Heath School.

Initially, the Center staff was under the impression that three or four Title III teachers who were interested in teaching the unit would be referred to the Center for collaboration in planning during the month of June. However, it eventually became clear (a) that most Title III teachers were involved in preparing to teach their own materials; (b) that those who might be interested in trying to teach the unit during one of the three periods in a morning were full-time teachers through Friday, 23 June, and had little or no time to work with the Working Party staff; and (c) that 26-27 June had been scheduled as a workshop for the Title III teachers to deal with other aspects of the summer program, so that the period 28 June - 4 July was left as the teachers' only chance for a brief vacation before the summer program started on 5 July.

Mrs. Louise C. Smith, Miss Astrid Anderson, and Dr. Joseph Grannis of the Working Party staff did meet on two occasions with the one teacher most interested in teaching the unit, Miss Ada McIntosh, a first-grade teacher in the Brookline school system. Miss McIntosh approached the prospect of teaching the unit with understanding and enthusiasm, despite the fact that she, too, taught full-time through Friday, 23 June, and the fact that she was preparing at the same time to teach individualized reading and a unit on the Hopi Indians. She prepared lesson plans for the first week of summer school which were modified elaborations of the initial section of the unit, "Individuals."

Calling the unit "All About Us," Miss McIntosh presented it as one of the choices offered when the children sat down on 5 July to decide what they wanted to study for the coming week. At this point, it was not clear to the Center staff (and may not have been to the Title III staff) that the decision would be made to give the children the opportunity to change their programs each one of the six weeks of summer school. Both because all children could not sign up at once for obviously high-interest courses, such as swimming and cooking, and because she felt -- and rightfully so -- that a group of fewer than 15 would make it difficult to work with this unit, Miss McIntosh insisted that some children sign up for "All About Us" the first week. (Some children signed up for the unit voluntarily, out of interest in Miss McIntosh's vivid description.) When it eventually became clear that between scheduling difficulties and the intangible nature of this unit compared to other offerings, she would have to require children to sign up for this unit again and again, Miss McIntosh and Miss Anderson of the Center staff devised another method for getting some children together to try out the unit. (Here again, some children willingly signed up for the course for a second week, for by that time they were interested in the unit and its approach.) That method was for Miss McIntosh to offer individualized reading one or two periods a morning, then dividing up and alternating the children who came to it between reading and "All About Us" -- with Miss Anderson, of the Center staff, teaching the unit.

Often it was possible to co-ordinate the subject matter the children used in individualized reading with the content of the "All About Us" unit, employing the judicious use of trade books. On a few occasions, the entire group could be brought together if there was a need to try out some activity in the unit with as large a group of children as possible. Also, because the age grouping was mixed and the class periods a full hour, the youngest in the group of six to nine-year-olds often did not want to read for the entire period; therefore, very often the youngest of the group joined Miss Anderson in one corner of the classroom for "All About Us" the second half of the hour.

Some logistic difficulties continued, however. The first few days of the summer school, Miss Anderson (who was not yet teaching) and Mrs. Harris, of the Center's evaluation staff, interviewed children outside the classroom, thus breaking up the continuity of the children's discussions with Miss McIntosh. Two days a week the boys, and two days a week the girls, returned from second-period swimming halfway through the third period -- the hour in which "All About Us" was being offered. (This second difficulty need not have been a problem in and of itself, but on several occasions activities depending upon a certain diversity in the group of children concerned had to be postponed or abandoned because there was not even the sex difference to draw upon.) Finally, the group of children working with Miss Anderson in one corner of the individualized reading classroom was considerably cramped in terms of noise as well as space.

Nevertheless, despite the limitations and unknowns operating in the situation for both children and teachers, there were numerous occasions on which it was possible to try out parts of the unit in a manner which was either gratifying or instructive -- or both. Tryouts were gratifying in the degree to which they confirmed the hypotheses of the Working Party that the unit material would be useful and effective. Evidence that the tryouts were instructive can be found in the plethora of recommendations to come out of the Title III experience -- very specific recommendations about modifications and elaborations in content and general recommendations about how to proceed in further tryouts of the unit.

One example of a specific recommendation, for instance, is that the list of word cards with which part I of the unit, "Individuals," begins should be considerably reduced and modified. On the page listing the words is the instruction to the teacher: "Some children may not even want this set to start with. Let them find out what they need." The experience in Brookline showed that _after_ providing a teacher with a list of words, it is probably too late to tell her to "let them find out what they need." Furthermore, the list provided is too long and contains too many words which are dull, listless, and boring. The words provided, if any, should be fewer and sprightlier. As a result of the experience in Brookline, it is possible to say even more strongly that the children should be allowed to find out what they need. Were the unit to include such a directive, it would be imperative to be able to tell the teacher precisely how her children might go about finding out what cards they needed. To do this, the Center staff will have to experiment further. While some children did not know the words jealous and shy on the list given in the unit outline, even six-year-olds were quite capable of describing times when they felt "jealous" or "shy" when given a clue to what these two sensations might feel like. Perhaps it is with discussion of feelings, and a growth in spoken vocabulary, that Section I, "Individuals," should commence, rather than with the handing out of stacks of word cards.

While tryouts proceeded in the first two weeks of summer school under conditions characterized by discontinuity in the group's composition, cramped space, and day-to-day planning, at the same time it became more possible to plan. Knowing that certain scheduling difficulties were the price to be paid for the children's free choice helped the situation to settle down. "All About Us" became Miss Anderson's sole province, and she was given a classroom of her own in which to work. Delineation of responsibility and space made it possible to plan ahead and in detail. The composition of the group of children continued to change and the number to fluctuate, but by this time there was a nucleus of children -- perhaps six -- who had experienced most of the sorting activities in Part I, "Individuals," and were ready to move on to Part II, "Groups," and Part III, "Interaction." In fact, this nucleus of six would probably have moved ahead much faster except for the presence of relative newcomers to the class.

In all, about 15 to 20 children had some exposure to the unit, a few only on one or two occasions. For the last four weeks of the program, the teacher experienced repeatedly the problem of deciding at a moment's notice at what point to pick up the unit material in such a way that the nucleus of six would not be bored while the relative newcomers were not left behind. One of the most consistently gratifying aspects of this experience with the unit, for both teacher and children, was the opportunity to work in small groups. For at least two of the children in the nucleus of six, this was probably the primary factor in their repeated choice of "All About Us." Another appeal of the material to the children was the opportunity it gave to talk about themselves, one of the things children in the 6-9-year-old group traditionally do best! (There were aspects of this which were enough of a problem so that further development of the unit must deal with them.) The material and the method are open-ended enough so that some of the children all of the time, and all of the children some of the time, saw the unit as a sort of show-and-tell opportunity on any subject. Some teachers would interpret this as a reason to impose rigid direction on the class and perhaps in the process dampen the inclination of the children to talk very much. Further development of the unit must attempt to help the teacher walk the tightrope between directiveness and open-endedness, because this is a unit which depends for its success not on the memorization of words and facts but on the disposition of children to talk about their experiences and their feelings. There is no question, however, that in this experience with the unit the participating children thrived on a sense of being accepted for themselves as individuals which was generated by both the natural (in this case) and the required (in the case of any teacher using the unit) interest the teacher shows in the individual child. Some sense of reciprocity -- arising from the instruction found early in Section I, "Individuals," that the teacher should participate as fully as possible in all activities -- probably also contributed to the children's feelings of acceptance and full participation.

An example at this point might contribute to the reader's understanding of what kind of elaboration this unit yet requires and the degree to which the tryouts of the past summer clarified priorities for revision. In Section I, "Individuals," (A-Connecting Tags), there is the instruction to the teacher: "...of course, the teacher should play all the games, too, picking out words for herself, later signing up for different groups, making a scrapbook about herself, and so forth." What the instruction does not say is why the teacher should. Thus it was that the teachers in the Title I program in Lowell did not pick up either the meaning or the significance of the instruction and did not, by and large, act upon it. The Brookline teacher, on the other hand, herself a member of the Lower Grade Working Party throughout the year, remembered the Working Party discussion which led to this instruction, and was thus motivated to act upon it. The theory behind the instruction was that if the unit is "All About Us," then the teacher is also one of the group. If the unit is about human diversity, then the diversity (adulthood) she represents is an important, live resource for the children. Finally, her participation in activities, particularly those which are self-revelatory, was viewed by the Working Party as one more way to break down that classroom status consciousness which is built up in part by the traditional role of the teacher as an unrevealed private person.

Suffice it to say that the Brookline children delighted in the experience of finding out that their teacher was 29, was 5'10" tall, and didn't go to any church. (Lest there be consternation over the revelation of the last point, there were two children in the group who also didn't go to any church.) These facts came up as a result of her participation in activity 1 in the early part of Section II, "Groups," in which on the board are listed the different kinds of groups to which each individual belongs. She also participated in activity 2 and activity 7 in the same section of the unit.

Brief examples of tryouts in Brookline of some portions of the unit follow, with emphasis upon giving some idea of the relative success or failure of the tryout and upon what was learned about revising the materials. The learning activities are not necessarily described in the sequence found in the unit itself, nor were they necessarily always tried out in sequence -- largely due to the irregularity of the size and composition of the group of children, but also because the philosophy of the unit does not require a rigid sequence of activities.

Examples of Brookline Tryouts

Activity A, 7, under Part I, "Individuals," on p.17: Circling DOES words in red, IS words in blue, and FEELS words in green on a list of words was in fact found to be too difficult for six- and seven-year-olds. As the instructions to the teacher say, "...it is difficult because it involves using two criteria simultaneously." The only child who had no difficulty doing this was an eight-year-old entering the third grade. Younger children did discern sometimes the fact that some words could be in more than one category, and all the children did seem to enjoy the words and the approach of this activity. It would seem, however, that the activity as it stands should be used at the third-grade level; for use below the third grade, the children should be asked to circle words in only one category at a time.

Activity C, 3, under Part I, "Individuals," on p. 23: Tagging pictures with the IS, DOES, and FEELS, cards was possible as both an individual and a group activity, and was one which the children seemed to enjoy very much. On one occasion, one child was to tag the picture while the others watched to see if they agreed with the tagging. If they did not agree, they were to tell why and the group could come to a decision. The very idea of being asked to decide whether or not they "agreed" with someone else's decision appealed to the children because built into the activity was respect for everyone's opinion.

Activities C, 4 and C, 5 under Part I, "Individuals," on p. 24: "Comparisons" and "Contents" were two of the most appealing sections of the unit, and ones which the children entered into with enthusiasm partly, at least, because they represented a change-of-pace from word cards and pictures. There is a great deal of opportunity in these activities for the children to move around the classroom and to move outside of the classroom.

Part of Activity C, 4, was developed into LESSON 3: WHAT IS SKIN COLOR?, a lesson plan in detail which is inserted at the conclusion of Section II of this final report. It was developed as a result of an extraordinarily successful class period dealing with skin color. The children themselves brought yellow, orange, and green vegetables -- as well as two sample potatoes -- to school for the class; each child was assigned the task of bringing a sample of one vegetable. The "how" and "why" approach of science which the lesson takes appealed particularly to the children that day, most of whom were boys between six and eight years of age. They seemed fascinated by the idea that the melanin which makes people different shades of brown partakes of the same function as that of the chlorophyll which makes spinach green and the carotene which makes carrots orange. Perhaps it should be mentioned here that words such as chlorophyll, carotene, xanthophyll, and pigment presented little difficulty to these children.

Activity 5, under Part II, "Groups," on p. 29 : This activity, although not tried out per se in Brookline, was developed into LESSON 1: WHO IS AN AMERICAN?, a detailed lesson plan which follows at the conclusion of Section II of this final report. The lesson plan, much of which consists of background for the teacher in the facts of legal American citizenship, draws heavily upon the experience of the Brookline teacher in listening to children talk during other unit activities. The word American was part of every child's vocabulary, although it was loosely applied and only vaguely understood.

Activity 7, under Part II, "Groups," on p. 31 : This activity, closely related to Activity 5, above, was developed as a result of the Brookline tryouts into

LESSON 2: WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM, a detailed lesson plan which, with its accompanying genealogical chart, follows at the conclusion of Section II of this report. The specific objectives of this lesson include: (1) making children who are unaware or inarticulate about their ethnic identities aware of what they are in a positive situation (school) under the guidance of an unhostile person (teacher); (2) fostering positive acceptance of the child's ethnic identity by himself and his peers; (3) conveying, by implication, that it is all right in this country to have an ethnic identity. Approximately ten children took the WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM chart home where a parent filled it out. (It seems reasonable to hypothesize at this point that the instructions on the chart to the effect that the child himself fill in the names of the countries, while "interviewing" his parents, might be more appropriate for the third-grade level.) Children who, at the outset, seemed bored by the whole idea of finding out from which countries their forebears had come or insisted that their forebears were always here, returned to school with the completed charts curious about where X country could be found on the world map and excited at the chance to affix their first names to the map in the appropriate spots.

Activities 1, 2, and 3, under Part III, "Interactions," on p. 37: As a result of the experience in Brookline, it is now possible to say that Part III should not necessarily begin by "establishing the meaning of 'interaction'". In Brookline, the children began, in a group and aloud, by making up lists of the things one does by oneself most of the time, things that MUST be done with someone else to be done at all, and things that are more fun or done better with others. The hypothesis in the unit that this activity "should get the children thinking about interaction" was confirmed. Instead of proceeding to Activity 2, the Brookline teacher chose to digress at this point by asking the children to divide into small groups in order to act out, preferably in pantomime, anything in any one of the three lists while the remainder of the children guessed what activity it was and in which list it belonged. Again, the children relished this activity for its physical liveliness and thus enjoyed the categorizing part of it. Capitalizing on the spirit of the moment, it was easy afterwards to draw out from the children themselves a definition of interaction, while introducing the specific word itself to them.

3. Teaching in the Summer 1967 Title I Program in Lowell

In the summer of 1967, a seven-week day-camp program under Title I was organized to serve some five hundred disadvantaged urban children from the Lowell, Massachusetts, area. The Lowell project staff divided the program into two separate camps based at two Lowell elementary schools: Camp Pyne for 250 children entering the first through third grades; and Camp Mogan for 250 children entering the fourth through sixth grades. The camps were staffed primarily by Lowell public school teachers, curriculum and human relations consultants, and college students acting as "squad leaders" and "content aides." The curriculum offered a variety of activities from arts and crafts, swimming and pioneering,[1] to the more academic areas of language arts and social science. The directors were deeply committed to promoting positive attitudes in teacher-student relationships and to reducing threatening feelings perhaps already associated with the students' regular school environment. Indeed, the staff of the Lowell project felt strongly that the goals could be achieved most successfully by emphasizing the informal camp atmosphere. Therefore, all activities, including the academic classes, met in small groups outdoors.

The actual goals of the camp were set forth as follows:

1. To help each child experience success as one road to improving his self-image or the way he feels about himself and his learning capabilities.

2. To help the school-alienated child realize that adults, particularly teachers, are human and can be their friends.

3. To encourage and develop the creative potential and personal interests of each child.

4. To enrich and expand the experience of urban children.

In early July, Miss Mary Lou Denning, the Lowell Title I director, requested the use of the Center's materials on racial and cultural diversity in American life. As a part-time member of the Upper Grade Unit Working Party, Miss Denning was familiar with the project material and thought that it could be used effectively to help achieve the Lowell project's goals. Dr. Gibson felt that the Center's association with the Lowell project would be valuable for several reasons. The camp would be the first opportunity for the Upper Grade Unit to be taught in a completely nonsuburban environment.[2] It would provide the first opportunity to learn how teachers not directly connected with the Center could deal with the present materials. Since the Center's staff firmly believes that ongoing teaching plays a crucial role in the process of curriculum development, the Lowell project could give the staff additional feedback in terms of improvizations and recommendations from the summer teachers of the units. Finally, the Center's association with the Lowell project would provide an opportunity to try out new evaluation procedures being developed at the Center during the summer.[3]

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[1] "Pioneering" was the theme of the camp. In the pioneering class, the students constructed an actual pioneer stockade using materials from the surrounding woods.

The six Lowell social studies teachers were first formally introduced to the project materials on racial and cultural diversity when Dr. Gibson went to Lowell in early July to present the teachers with background information concerning the Upper and Lower Grade Units. At this time, the teachers were given copies of the May, 1967, Progress Report of the Project which contains the materials of both units. Then on Monday, July 17, after the Lowell classes had already begun, the social studies "team" and Miss Denning came to the Center for one planned day of orientation. Inasmuch as the Center's affiliation with the Title I Project was established less than two weeks earlier, advance preparation for the teacher orientation program was clearly limited.

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[2] For details on the teaching of the Upper Grade Unit in Lowell, see Section III, C, "Teaching the Upper Grade Unit."

[3] See EVALUATION

The teachers and Miss Denning first met with Dr. Gibson and Miss Jane B. Benson, a member of the Center's staff, to discuss the teachers' initial reactions to the unit materials and to probe questions and doubts the teachers had about the material.[4] Next, with the materials before them, the teachers watched portions of the videotapes of Mrs. Hilbert teaching the Upper Grade Unit at Winchester (see p. 4)[5] The teachers took notes on the teaching demonstrations, but time did not permit extensive analysis of procedural devices or the inductive methodology used by Mrs. Hilbert. The orientation activities ended with a meeting designed to familiarize Miss Benson with the organizational framework of the Title I Program.

Teaching the Lower Grade Unit in the Title III program in Brookline prevented Miss Astrid C. Anderson of the Center staff from serving full time as co-ordinator of the tryouts of the Lower Grade Unit in Lowell for much of the summer, since for a period of five weeks the two programs overlapped. During the period when Miss Anderson was involved in teaching in Brookline, Miss Jane B. Benson of the Center staff co-ordinated the tryouts of both units in Lowell. Miss Benson, however, concentrated her efforts on serving as a co-ordinator and observer of the teaching of the Upper Grade Unit while serving as co-ordinator of evaluation for both units. Thus it was, then, that the experiment with the Lower Grade Unit in Lowell was the one in which the possibilities and limitations of a written guide for teachers were most vividly revealed to the Center staff. Other than occasional opportunities to consult informally with Miss Benson or Miss Anderson when they visited the camp, all the teachers had to work with was the Lower Grade Unit in the form in which it appears in this final report in Section II, B. It was not until the final two weeks of the Lowell program that Miss Anderson, as a result of her teaching experience in Brookline, was in a position to provide the Lowell teachers with a few sample lesson plans in detail.

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[4] The teachers expressed the fear that they would be introducing prejudice to unprejudiced children. They also had doubts that the present design of the unit materials would be workable with "slow" students having major verbal handicaps.

[5] Section III, C, Teaching the Upper Grade Unit.

While one "squad" of about ten children had social studies at Camp Pyne every day for seven weeks, the remainder of the 250 children at the Grade 1-3 level were reached by the Lower Grade Unit on a somewhat less frequent and intensive basis. Nevertheless, at one time or another, all of the 250 children had some contact with the unit. As noted above, classes in Lowell were held out of doors most of the time. This imposed a few limitations at times on what it was possible to do with the unit materials, but not to any great extent. In fact, the Lowell teachers proved to be very inventive with respect to the milieu of the class. Had the demands of time and personnel not been so great, however, the Lowell teachers undoubtedly could have used more support from the Project staff on suggestions about the adaptation of the unit both to the spacious, open-air environment and to the special reading and writing capacities of the children with whom they were working.

The six members of the teaching staff for the Lowell Lower Grade Unit also proved inventive when it came to supplementing the unit activities with already existing instructional materials. Most of the materials of this nature belonging to the Center were in use in the Brookline classroom. The Lowell Title I staff, however, developed for the use of the school system a truly impressive library of instructional materials geared to the educationally disadvantaged child and/or the urban environment. In part to encourage liberal use of this library during the regular school year, the summer Title I program was set up in such a way that each teacher was freed from her testing duties one or two days a week to have time to develop teaching strategies. The Lowell teachers of the Lower Grade Unit used this opportunity to select materials from their Title I library for use with the unit. Most of the materials were familiar to the Center project staff, but some were valuable additions to the list of good existing materials for use with the unit.

Six sample lesson plans drawn up by Lowell teachers of the Lower Grade Unit in their free planning time are included in this report at the conclusion of Section II:

(1) An introduction to the IS, DOES, and FEEL words

(2) "Follow-Up on Individual Feelings"

(3) "Individual Comparisons"

(4) "Interaction"

(5) "Norms and Values (or "Shoulds and Shouldn'ts")"

(6) Scavenger Hunt (using magazines to find pictures)

The recommendations of the Lowell teachers for further development of the unit are included in Section II, C, 4, "Recommendations for Further Development of the Unit"; their recommendations for future teacher education in preparation for use of the unit are included in Section II, C, 5, "Recommendations for Teacher Education." Also included in these two sections are the recommendations of the Center staff as a result of their own efforts to develop the unit for the Lowell situation and to interpret the significance, meaning, and use of the unit for the Lowell teachers.

In conclusion, the Center staff feels that the experience of trying out the Lower Grade Unit in Lowell was invaluable for the light it shed on how the Project should proceed in future endeavors of this kind. The Lowell experiment was considerably enhanced by the insight and perspective of the Lowell Title I director, Miss Mary Lou Denning, without whose enthusiastic interpretation neither the Center staff nor the Lowell teachers would have learned so much. Her feelings both for the Lower Grade Unit and for the children participating in the Title I summer program was an indispensable ingredient of the success of the unit's tryout. It was with the Lowell teachers, however, that the key to the success of the tryout ultimately lay, and they proved themselves inventive and dedicated despite an unorthodox teaching situation and unfamiliar materials.

4. Recommendations for Further Development of the Unit and for Teacher Education

Recommendations for further development of the unit fall into one of four general categories, all of which overlap critically:

(a) The unit must be spelled out, lesson plan by lesson plan.

(b) The materials required for teaching the unit must be provided for the teacher in a "kit" of some sort.

(c) Intensive teacher training ideally should preface the teaching of the unit for at least the next year.

(d) Tryouts in 1967-68 should be confined to the third grade.

(a) The unit must be spelled out, lesson plan by lesson plan. This is in fact what all teachers who used the unit in the summer of 1967 found was necessary for their day-to-day teaching. The lesson plans which they developed follow at the end of Section II, The Lower Grade Unit; they are an indication of the way the Project will proceed to pursue recommendation (a). In the Project proposal for additional funding of 30 August, 1967, this recommendation is incorporated and described on page 5 and page 11. There is no question that only those who actually teach the unit should attempt to elaborate sections of it; this usually entails a rough-draft lesson plan before teaching any section and a more detailed version after attempting to teach it. Elaboration of the unit, lesson plan by lesson plan, also includes, of course, planning what special materials (filmstrips, trade books, magnifying glasses, yardsticks, pictures, word cards) need to be included in the ultimate instructional package.

The evaluation questionnaire returned by the six Lowell Title I teachers and content aides unanimously stressed the need for greater detail and specificity in the unit. The observations of the Lowell Title I Project director, Miss Mary Lou Denning, as well as those of Miss Benson and Miss Anderson of the Center staff, of the teaching tactics in Lowell underline the need for elaboration the teachers themselves expressed.

The teachers in Lowell and the observers of the Brookline tryouts also expressed a need for limited, concrete subgoals for each activity. In the three lesson plans at the conclusion of this section, the Brookline teacher has attempted to spell out the kind of subgoal the Lowell teachers requested. For instance, in "Lesson 1: Who Is An American?," three of the subgoals are:

(1) To dispel the idea that being an American has anything to do with skin color or shade.

(2) To dispel the idea that being an American has anything to do with the language one speaks best.

(3) To dispel the idea that being an American is something one is to a greater or lesser degree; one either is or is not an American.

Specific subgoals for "Lesson 2: Where My Family Came From," include:

(1) Making children who are unaware or inarticulate about their ethnic identities aware of what they are in a positive situation (school) under the guidance of an unhostile person (the teacher).

(2) Fostering positive acceptance of the child's ethnic identity by himself and his peers.

(3) Conveying, by implication, that it is O.K. in the USA to *have* an ethnic identity.

In "Lesson 3: What Is Skin Color?," the two primary subgoals are:

(1) To provide a scientific explanation of skin color.

(2) To put the inevitably *socially* loaded fact of skin color difference into a context which makes the matter one primarily a question of what makes color and what is skin.

Although many teachers are eager to have materials such as this unit, and while some teachers working with the unit respond to its *raison d'être* immediately, the Project staff repeatedly encounters resistance on the part of other teachers working with the unit to the assumptions it makes about children's perceptions and ability to conceptualize about the unit material. While the nature of these resistances will have to be dealt with largely in pre-service and in-service teacher-training sessions, some of them can be anticipated and confronted in the lesson plans themselves through providing subgoals the concreteness of which is meaningful to the average elementary school teacher.

There was considerable feeling among the Brookline Title III staff which either worked with, or observed the teaching of, the unit that even the overall goals (outlined on p. 1, Section II, B) of the unit should be revised in such a way that the unit's assumptions about the nature of 6-9-year-old children's learning and its claim about what can reasonably be accomplished in one year of elementary school are not misleadingly exaggerated. It was their judgment that the objectives stated on page 1, Section II, B, are what could reasonably be claimed for a six-to-seven-year elementary school social studies program modeled after this unit. For one year however -- and use in grade 2 or 3 -- they suggested the following revised objectives:

(1) To increase the capacity of children to identify differences among individuals.

(2) To increase the capacity of children to identify groups (racial, ethnic, national, religious, economic) on the assumption that learning this in a positive, unbiased, nurturant atmosphere of the school will lay a good groundwork for coping with later associations and nonschool learning in an unbiased, comprehending fashion.

(3) To promote greater powers of observation of group interaction on the part of children.

(4) To increase the vocabulary of children for describing individuals, groups, and human interaction.

(b) The materials required for teaching the unit must be provided for the teacher in a "kit" of some sort.

As described earlier in the discussion of the unit tryouts in Brookline and Lowell, a great deal was demanded of each teacher in terms of seeking out, requisitioning, reproducing, and sometimes even buying her materials. For the most effective future tryouts of a unit which is demanding simply in terms of its newness and the need for keeping detailed notes on its strengths and weaknesses, the Project staff must make the teacher's job as easy as possible by supplying her with as many supplementary teaching materials as possible. This will be true particularly in the anticipated second and third phases of the teaching of the unit described on pp. 11-12 of the Project proposal submitted to the Office of Education on 30 August, 1967. The Project plans to have five provisional instructional packages ready by March, 1968, for use in experimental classrooms using the Lower Grade Unit. These instructional packages will include such materials as a videotape of television news reporting of the Detroit riots; pictures and word cards for tagging and sorting games; measuring tape for the comparison of physical characteristics; two trade books on skin and skin color and a magnifying glass for the section on skin color; a list of community and professional organizations which the teacher can contact to set up classroom visits; a complete set of WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM genealogical charts; a world map, a packet of pins, and name tags for each child to use in labeling the map according to his chart. A detailed description of the Project's proposed instructional packages may be found on pp. 15-16 of the proposal of 30 August, 1967.

(c) Intensive teacher training ideally should preface the teaching of the unit for at least the next year.

The Project proposal of 30 August, 1967, outlines on pp. 12-13 (d. Teacher Workshops - Spring, 1968, and g. Sensitivity Training) some of the Project's plans for intensive teacher training to preface teaching of the unit in the next year. The Lower Grade Unit staff views the detailed written development of the unit itself as another critical form of teacher training. No matter how much curriculum development projects talk about the creative, independent, flexible teacher, the fact remains that a large proportion of elementary school teachers are not trained in a way which capitalizes on their predispositions toward creativity, independence, and flexibility. Many, if not most, still need "recipes" for teaching anything, particularly anything new in the curriculum, such as this unit. Detailed development of the unit, it is anticipated, will at least remove from the unit some of the threat it poses to traditionally trained teachers in terms of reliance upon their initiative and ingenuity.

It is hoped that the Project will put a great deal of time and effort into a pilot program of training a small group of teachers in the spring, 1968, workshop, in order to maximize the opportunities to learn on a small scale the difference between effective and ineffective procedures for teacher preparation for this unit. Sensitivity training should comprise a significant portion of the proposed workshop, as should opportunities both to observe and actually to teach demonstration classes. Another third of the first attempt at training a new group of teachers should be devoted to an attempt to generate a personal sense of curiosity about, fascination with, and capacity for analysis of the multifaceted phenomenon of racial and cultural diversity in American history and contemporary life. This attempt should be geared to the teacher as a literate, compassionate, intellectually curious adult who needs information for her own use and comfort before she can be expected to deal with this unit with children in a stimulating or informative manner. The form that this part of pre-service teacher training could take might include a talk by Dr. Robert

Coles, a Harvard Medical School psychiatrist whose research on children in the nation's racial crisis has been widely published (Children of Crisis, Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1964); reading Oscar Handlin's well-known and excitingly written book on American immigration (The Uprooted, Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1951); and viewing the three McGraw-Hill films dealing with the inner-city child, for which the Center served as a consultant.

The need for both sensitivity training and personal intellectual stimulation for teachers dealing with this unit has been demonstrated over and over again -- both formally, in meetings and on questionnaires, and informally in conversation between Project staff members and unit teachers -- when dealing with (a) the civil rights revolution, (b) the relevance in contemporary American society of the "melting pot" concept, and most importantly, (c) the perceptions of children between six and nine of racial, religious, and ethnic differences. The civil rights revolution is as often as not regarded from an uncritically self-righteous, middle-class viewpoint, and the relevance of the "melting pot" concept of assimilation is tenaciously clung to.

Finally, there is growing evidence that teacher estimates of children's perceptions seem to be influenced by many things in varying proportions from teacher to teacher: (i) underestimation of children's intellectual ability at the K-3 level; (ii) underestimation of children's acute observational prowess; (iii) parochial defensiveness with respect to "these" children ("my" children, or the children of this school, this city, or this region); (iv) personal defensiveness on the part of teachers who are threatened by the material into awareness of their own minority-group membership(s) and out-group prejudices.

Three of the six Lowell Title I teachers and content aides said on a follow-up questionnaire that they thought children were unaware of nationality (ethnic) differences; five of the six thought 6-9-year-old children were unaware of religious differences; and while five of the six said that they thought 6-9 year old children were aware of skin-color differences, two of the five added comments, such as:

> "Skin color is not a quality they use for distinction."
>
> "Some Negro children didn't make brown faces /when they were asked to draw themselves./ I think most of the children this summer didn't recognize skin differences."

These responses on the questionnaire -- differing as much as they do from both the data available to and the teaching experience of the Project staff -- would make it seem that at the very least teachers using the unit must be brought to understand the difference between the observational capacity of 6-9-year-old children and the inclination of this age group to assign explicit, verbal "good" vs. "bad" tags to what they observe. Then, too, the teachers must be provided with an analytical vehicle for interpreting the words and actions of children in the sphere of racial and cultural diversity. Perhaps after a session with Dr. Coles, a teacher would no longer be able blithely to conclude that because "some Negro children didn't make brown faces, ... they didn't recognize skin differences."

Further explicit support for the idea that a combination of sensitivity training and intellectual stimulation is necessary for the new teachers handling the unit in the coming year came in the form of answers to the last part of the Lowell follow-up questionnaire. This part was composed of nine questions designed to get at the teachers' personal estimation of the scope and degree of anti-minority group attitudes and of the causes and effects of the civil rights revolution. Replies to one question, "Why do you think Negroes in Detroit, Watts, Harlem (etc.) have rioted?" included comments such as:

> -the desire to better their living conditions, i.e., housing, school, jobs.
>
> -The people (white and Negro) involved in these happenings in my opinion are 'egotists'
>
> -...many were stirred up by outside agitators.
>
> -...unfortunately riots have caused more prejudices than before.
>
> -...the Negro society in general has not achieved a value system which emphasizes education as a means to success.
>
> -I'm not really sure but perhaps it's because they feel their rights have been infringed upon.

It must be granted that four of these six replies are excerpted from the teacher's complete response; and it must also be granted that some of these replies are not "wrong" out of hand. Nevertheless, as a group, they do provide some indication of a propensity to judge the civil rights revolution from an uncritically self-righteous, middle-class viewpoint with which it would be easy to infect a class of second- or third-graders.

(d) Tryouts in 1967-68 should be confined to the third grade. This final recommendation should be considered in the nature of just that: a recommendation, for it is always difficult to predict what unanticipated opportunities for unit tryout will come to the attention of the Project staff in the coming year. However, evidence has been mounting in tryouts during the summer, 1967, that the unit, as now written and conceived, would be best used with the age group which customarily comprises the third grade. Eight teachers who taught portions of the unit, as well as both the Title I director and the Title III social studies program supervisor who observed its teaching, were essentially unanimous on this point. In the follow-up questionnaires, the six Lowell Title I program teachers and content aides were asked, "At which grade level do you think this unit, as now written, should be tried out?" Their replies follow:

-advanced second grade, or regular third
-grades 2, 3, or 4
-second grade, with reservations
-late second grade, early third
-advanced second grade, or third
-grades 4 or 5 (possibly third)

Clearly, the greatest agreement is on grade three.

In addition, Mr. Charles Mitsakos, Social Studies Supervisor in the Title III program; Miss Ada McIntosh, the Title III teacher who taught early portions of the unit; and Miss Astrid Anderson of the Center project staff, who taught most of the portions of the unit tried out in Brookline, also agreed that the unit, as now written, should be tried out in the coming year at the grade-3 level. They also agreed, however, that there was no question that it should not be abandoned after it has been developed for the grade-3 level. After it is fully developed for grade 3 and explicitly spelled out in detailed lesson plans for the teacher who needs it at that level, then an attempt should be made to modify the unit for grades 2 or 1 or kindergarten. One reason for dwelling on grade three instead of grade two, for the immediate future, is the fear that in the attempt to modify the unit "down" for 6- and 7-year-olds (which was clearly necessary in the tryouts in summer, 1967), many of the excellent, workable ideas in it for 8-and 9-year-olds might be lost in the process.

It is strongly felt that the introduction of too many variables into the 1967-68 tryouts would considerably diminish the strength of the revised and supplemented unit, so that mixed-age classrooms should also be avoided for the time being. Dealing with different teachers and different types of schools and communities has presented, and will present, the staff of the Lower Grade Unit with not inconsiderable challenge. Then, too, within any given age or grade grouping, there is sufficient difference in modes of learning among the children to pose a challenge when it comes to the creation of a wide variety of learning activities and methods.

CONCLUSION

The best conclusion to this section on the Lower Grade Unit -- other than the statements contained in the Proposal of 30 August, 1967, to the U.S. Office of Education for further funding with respect to the preparations the Center has made in anticipation of continuing the unit's development -- is probably one which quotes directly from the comments of teachers who experimented with the unit during the summer of 1967. In the follow-up questionnaire for the Lowell Title I program, the six teachers and content aides were asked, "What do you think is the strongest part of the unit, either as written and handed to you or as you saw it taught this summer?" Excerpts from their replies include:

> -The most effective lesson which I saw taught this summer was the one using different pictures from magazines and various sources of people with many different expressions on their faces, asking the children to label them and tell why the people in the pictures might feel the way they do.
>
> -Probably it was the fact that there were many ideas concerning attitudes which would be developed and expanded upon for the teaching of the unit.
>
> -the lesson on samenesses and differences; the lesson on interaction; the lessons using the IS, DO, and FEEL words.
>
> -I think the area on interaction was the strongest part. I feel it is great because through the use of pictures and/or dramatizations, children are able to examine and discuss readily interactions between people. I feel they have something concrete to work with in this section of the unit.
>
> -I think the strength was the feeling of real friendship from the leaders to the students, students to leaders, and students to each other that this unit developed by its insistence upon small groups. Out of this came frank expression of attitudes.

Lower Grade Unit

Lesson Plans and Materials for Children Developed
By Center Project Staff as a Result of Brookline Tryouts

All About Us - Heath School - Summer 1967

(Sorting Is, Does, and Feels Words)

Name:

Age:

1. Circle in red all the words which tell things you sometimes do.
2. Circle in blue all the words which tell what you are.
3. Circle in green all the words which tell how you sometimes feel.

angry
big
house
brown
cold
scared
proud
mother
child
cry
walk
jealous

puppy
lonely
shy
fight
swim
read
Jewish
think
happy
white
Catholic
hurt

selfish
run
father
little
fat
Batman
hot
quiet
dirty
brave
ask
show-off

Protestant
push
hate
share
hungry
Italian
boy
Negro
pretty
girl
love
happy

alone
Irish
eat
generous
American
hungry
rich
Moslem
tall
smart
ride
hot

LESSON 1: WHO IS AN AMERICAN?

Elaboration of Part II (Groups), page 29, No. 5.

Reason for lesson: Because children tend to think one can "tell" just by looking; also an elaboration of the idea of differentiating between groups one is "born into" and those one must join (as well as those one can change).

COURSE OBJECTIVES: Nos. 1 and 2.

Specific Objectives:

1. To dispel the idea that being an American has anything to do with skin color or shade.
2. To dispel the idea that being an American has anything to do with the language one speaks best.
3. To dispel the idea that being an American has anything to do with one's family name or where one lives.
4. To dispel the idea that being an American is something one is to a greater or lesser degree; one either is or is not an American.
5. To inculcate the idea that being an American means solely being a legal citizen of the United States of America.
6. To enhance the vocabulary of the children to include the following words and phrases: citizen, legal, United States of America, country, nation, nationality.
7. To introduce the idea that the nation, or country, the children live in is The United States of America, and that that is different from the state they live in (Massachusetts) and the city they live in (Lowell).
8. To introduce the alternative ways of becoming a citizen of the United States of America.

9. To introduce the idea that a great number of the people living in this country have always included a great many people who were not citizens of it.

Required aids to lesson: none; left up to the teacher.

Background for the teacher:

There are three legal categories of people living in the United States: native-born citizens, naturalized citizens, and aliens (who are not citizens).

1. Native-born Citizens

    a. are people born in the United States

    b. are people born in other countries if one or both of their parents were American citizens

    c. are the only people who can be elected President or Vice President of the United States

2. Naturalized Citizens

    a. are people born in another country who have chosen to become Americans through a special legal process

    b. if they come here as children, must wait till they are 18 to become American citizens

    c. must live in this country at least five years before he can ask to become a citizen.

        (1) unless he has served in the armed forces, in which case six months is the minimum residence requirement

        (2) unless he is married to an American citizen, in which case he must wait only one year.

d. must go through a special legal process to get citizenship which consists of:

    (1) applying for naturalization

    (2) getting two U.S. citizens who have known him during 5 years while he has lived here, to say that he is a suitable person to become a citizen

    (3) passing an examination in speaking and reading English and in his understanding of how American government works

    (4) taking an Oath of Allegiance to the United States.

3. Aliens

are people born in another country but living in the USA:

a. can be here just for a short visit

b. can be here for a long visit deciding whether to stay forever

c. can be under 18 years old and not able to become U.S. citizens

d. can be people waiting for the 5-year residence requirement to be over

e. can be people who are still learning English for the citizenship examination

f. can be people who are old, have lived here for most of their lives, but who have always lived in neighborhoods with people who spoke their own language and have never had to or wanted to learn English (which is probably the hardest part of becoming an American citizen)

Suggested way to proceed with the lesson:

Preface

One fifth grade boy wrote in response to an open-ended question: "There are two kinds of people. One is Americans and the other is Negroes." Two third grade girls, when asked what they saw in a film on modern Hopi Indian life which they had not expected to see, responded to the effect that they were surprised by the teacher at the Indian school. When asked why, they replied that they were interested by the fact that "she was an American." When asked how they could tell, they replied "because of her dress," "because of her earrings," and "because her skin was not dark." Further questioning of the two girls subsequently revealed that their concept of what constituted "an American" was fuzzy indeed and had a great deal more to do with how one looked than with the simple fact of legal citizenship. These incidents suggest that fuzziness in the thinking of the children may be expected in many cases. Bear in mind firmly the importance of not jumping to conclusions in advance of what your children's impressions are, and the equal importance of drawing out their impressions and rather than out-and-out correcting them, drawing out the other children on whether they think what Suzie said was right. Often an individual child will be in possession of a single factual exception to the inaccuracy just expressed, which often provides a good opening for you to lead the children inductively to what the facts really are.

Procedure

Open discussion by asking the children, "How Can You Tell Who Is An American?"

Basically, take off from there.

Despite the fact that this material includes legalisms, this is not a lesson in law.

Insert facts about citizenship only as the children's discussion leads up to it.

Let them hash out among themselves as much as possible what are the facts.

If a child throws out a spontaneous judgment, ask the other children if they agree.

Some things you can go along with in an interim sort of way, waiting for them to discover misconception.

Some things kids will uh-huh and yes you, when you ask them if they agree.

If it was a definite misconception or sounds as if it might be one, ask if anybody can think of an exception.

If they can't, use some out of your own experience (reading, real life, etc.)

Or, if possible, and the group is diverse enough, take every opportunity to use children in the group as exceptions or examples of what you can lead up to about the facts of "How Can You Tell ..."

(Example of "How Can You Tell"?)

In a city near Boston, there is a little girl, aged 7, whose name is Nadya Shimali.
(Is she an American? Does she have an American name?
Do we know enough about her yet?)

She has dark brown eyes and brown hair and wears clothes bought in Filene's (Woolworths, etc.)

(Do we know yet if she is an American?)

She speaks English as I do (demonstrate with one of the young children in the class by engaging him (her) in a conversation).

(Do we know yet?)

She was born in Kuwait, a tiny country near Saudi Arabia, in 1960.

(Do we know enough yet?)

Her father was also born in Kuwait; her mother was born in England.

(Can we tell yet? What CAN we tell?)

Her father is a citizen of Kuwait, her mother of England.

(Can we yet? What DO we know? Ans.: that she is not an American because her mother and her father are not American citizens (yet) and furthermore she is not 18 yet.)

What country is she a citizen of? (Ans.: We don't know, but it could be either Kuwait or England.)

(You could find a magazine photo of a little girl who fits this description to bring the example home a little more.)

If this can be followed up by example of a child in the class, do so.

How can Nadya become an American?

Use examples in class as much as possible.

If time permits, or at some other time, make up a story like the above, with picture, of a Negro boy in your town whose great-grandparents (great-great-great, etc. 15 times) came here in 1667, 300 years ago. Is he an American? How can you tell? If how they got here gets asked, or slavery is mentioned, explain that they were forced to come here to work for no money; try to avoid detailed treatment of slavery in this particular lesson. Wind up the discussion by asking the children what they think is the reason there is no slavery in the United States of America anymore.

LESSON 2: WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM

Elaboration of Part II (Groups), page 31, No. 7.

Reason for lesson: Because children at this age tend to describe themselves as just plain "Americans" and tend to not know where their forebears came from.

COURSE OBJECTIVES: Nos. 1 and 2; perhaps some of No. 5.

Specific Objectives:

1. making children who are unaware or inarticulate about their ethnic identities aware of what they are in a positive situation (school) under the guidance of an unhostile person (the teacher)
2. fostering positive acceptance of the child's ethnic identity by himself and his peers
3. conveying, by implication, the idea that it is OK in the USA to have an ethnic identity.

Required aids to lesson: We Came to America, Frances Cavanah, ed., Philadelphia: McCrae Smith Company, 1954, and The Uprooted, Oscar Handlin, Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1952, both for teacher background reading; for children WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM genealogical charts Xeroxed or dittoed for children to take home and fill in; a large world map or globe; name tags; sticky material to affix name tags to globe or map. (Sample genealogical chart follows at end of this lesson.)

Suggested ways to proceed with the lesson: First day: pass out WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM sheets to the children. Read the explanation aloud with them and find out if they understand it. One way to introduce this is to explain that they are about to go home and "interview" their parents. Ask what an "interview" is. Discuss briefly the difference between groups one is born into, ones we must join, and ones we can change. (We can change some of the groups we are "born into," particularly when we grow up.) Get the children to list as many of each as they can. Tend to accept anything they say, particularly on the first day, to encourage responsiveness. If glaringly questionable, ask other children if they agree, if they are sure. Just being "not sure" is an educated response. The children invariably come up with examples one is not absolutely sure about oneself: you, too, can always say you are "not sure"...and either leave it or come back to it another day. Make sure the children understand the charts. The writing on the chart is mainly so the parents understand. Make sure the children understand:

1. That the name of the country in which these relatives were born is all that should be filled in.

2. That we are not necessarily interested in names of the people.

3. That the chart doesn't have to be brought back right away; they can interview their parents at the best time for the parents.

Have a world map in view during the first day. See how much the children can read and/or understand about it. Point out their city, roughly, and their state, as well as the USA. Tell them that when they bring in their charts, they will have tags they can put their names on, and stickum with which to put their names on any country any of their family was born in. Then we will look for these countries.

Second day: Get children to talk about where their family came from by reading the chart. Help them to find the countries involved (let children help each other as much as possible.)

HOW DID I KNOW THAT SOMEONE IN YOUR FAMILY HAD TO HAVE BEEN BORN IN ANOTHER COUNTRY? (Because once upon a time only Indians were here.)

WERE THE INDIANS ALWAYS HERE? (No, thousands of years ago, their great-great-great-, etc. grandparents came across from Asia.)

WHEN DID THE FIRST PEOPLE COME TO WHAT IS NOW AMERICA? (The Spanish explored the southwest in 1400-1500).

WHEN DID PEOPLE FIRST COME TO THIS PART OF AMERICA? (Only 300+ years ago, in 1620, more or less.)

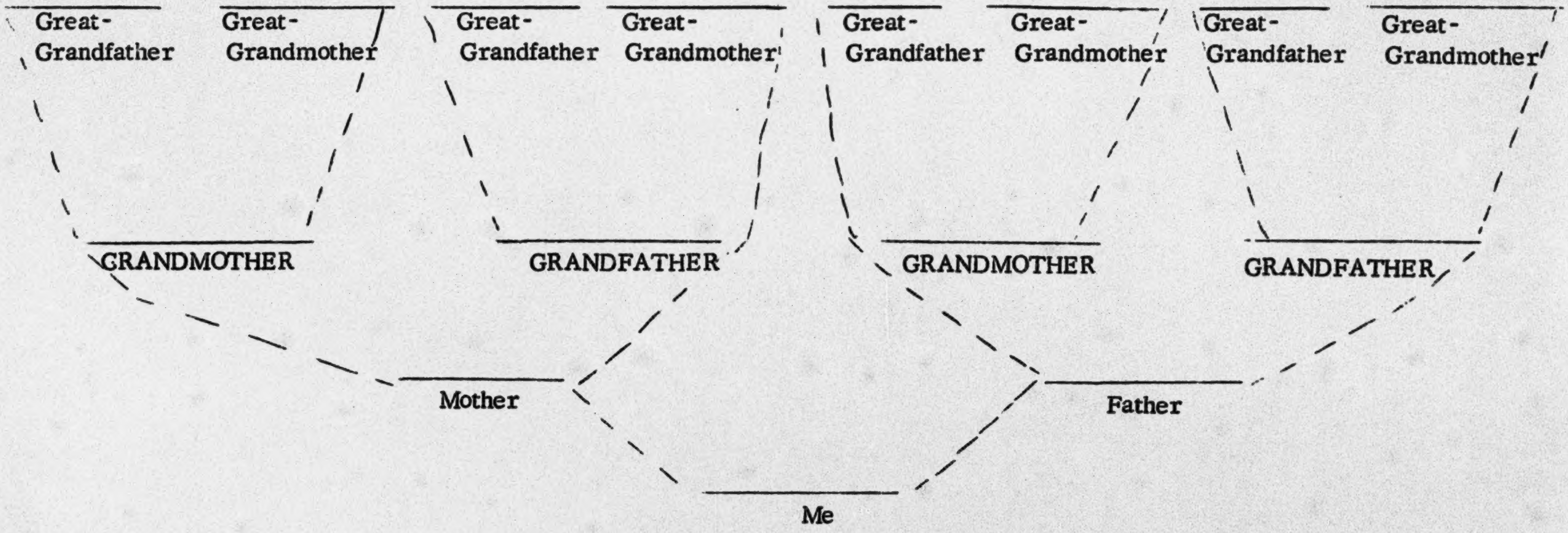
Fact: 1 out of 3 Americans today were born in another country or have at least one parent who was born in another country.

DID THE PEOPLE WHO CAME HERE ALWAYS SPEAK ENGLISH? (No. Point out how tiny England is -- the only place from which people came speaking English.)

-- Let them make name tags, give them some stickum, and let them put names on countries.

-- When all done, depending on patterning of the tags, lead into discussion of fact that we all came from somewhere else once upon a time. Try to lead them to say this; try not to put words in their mouths too much.

WHERE MY FAMILY CAME FROM


Great-Grandfather
Great-Grandmother
Great-Grandfather
Great-Grandmother
Great-Grandfather
Great-Grandmother
Great-Grandfather
Great-Grandmother
GRANDMOTHER
GRANDFATHER
GRANDMOTHER
GRANDFATHER
Mother
Father
Me

MY NAME: ______________________________

Most of us were born in America, but not all. Most of our parents were born in America, but not all. We are almost all alike because we are Americans. But almost all of us are different, too, because our families came from another country -- or many different countries. We will be talking about all the groups we belong to: which ones we are "born into," which ones we must join, and which ones we can change. Sometimes how we look, or what we do, or what our names are tells people what groups we belong to. But usually these things do not tell very much about us. To find out many things about a person, we must ask him. By taking this home and asking our parents questions about their parents, we can find out more about each other. Let's find out what countries our parents and grandparents and great-grandparents were born in!

LESSON 3: WHAT IS SKIN COLOR?

Elaboration of Part I (Individuals), page 24, No. 4 (Comparisons)

Reason for lesson: A hope that an early taste of the scientific/biological/chemical explanations for skin color may play some role in preventing the child from blindly accepting the *social*, religious, etc. explanations for it which have inflamed men's passions for centuries.

COURSE OBJECTIVES: Nos. 1, 2, 3.

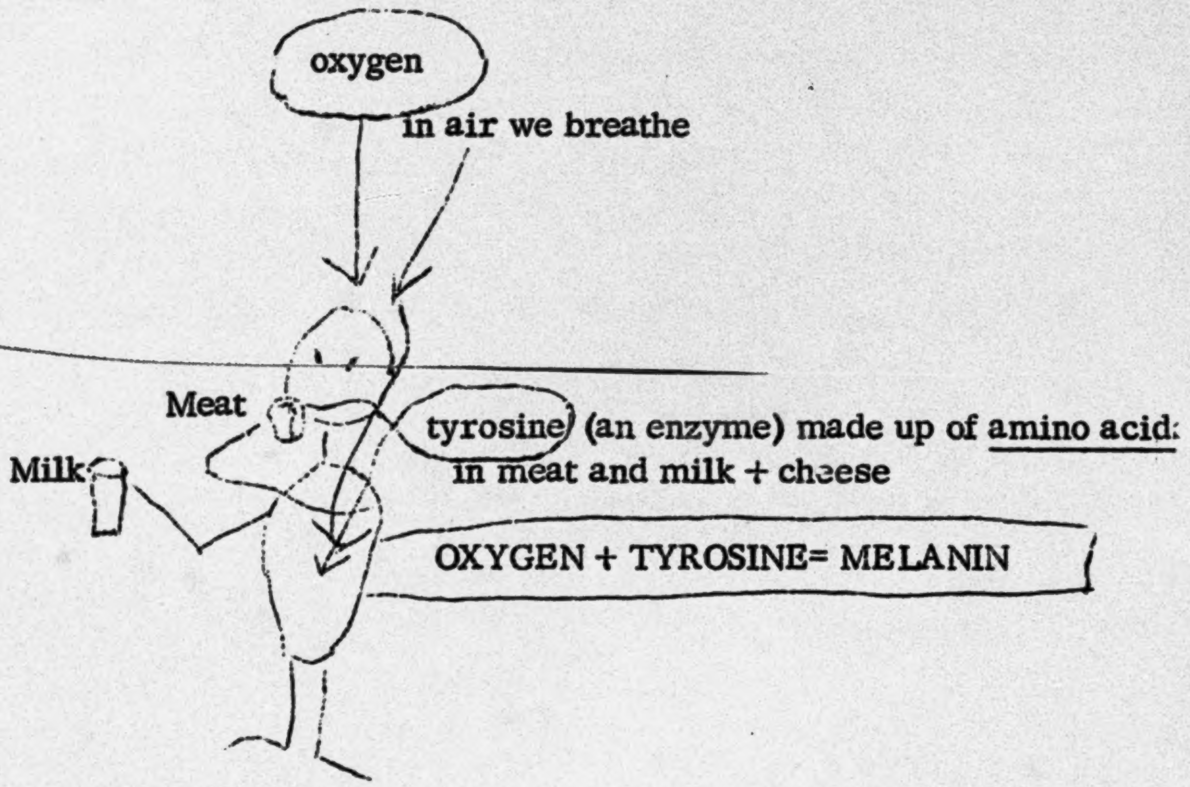
Specific Objectives:

1. a scientific explanation of skin color (to provide one)
    a. which may compete with the social explanations they are picking up by osmosis
    b. which may compete with the fantasies young children concoct in the absence of any explanation at all
    c. which may for some children predate even any observation (if not observation, at least talking about) of skin color, and perhaps prepare them for inevitable observation
2. to put the inevitably *socially* loaded fact of skin-color difference into a context which makes the matter primarily a question of:
    a. What is *color*; what makes color?
    b. What is *skin*?
3. to provide early in the life of the child an opportunity to talk about skin color difference in which the word *race* (a meaningless and obsolete term now, scientifically) is never used; and in which the fact of skin-color difference is treated as a matter of shade gradations

Required aids to lesson: RED MAN, WHITE MAN, AFRICAN CHIEF: THE STORY OF SKIN COLOR; YOUR SKIN AND MINE; if possible, a magnifying glass; a piece of very white paper (for demonstrating that who's "white" is a relative matter; a pin to prick yourself with, if you like; a sample of a reddish rock; a halved potato which has been halved for a while; an uncut potato and a knife to cut it with; and a few samples each of some yellow fruits and/or vegetables, some green ones and some orange ones. Read both books thoroughly, especially note to teachers in back of the first book. From these you may get many ideas of your own to use in this lesson.

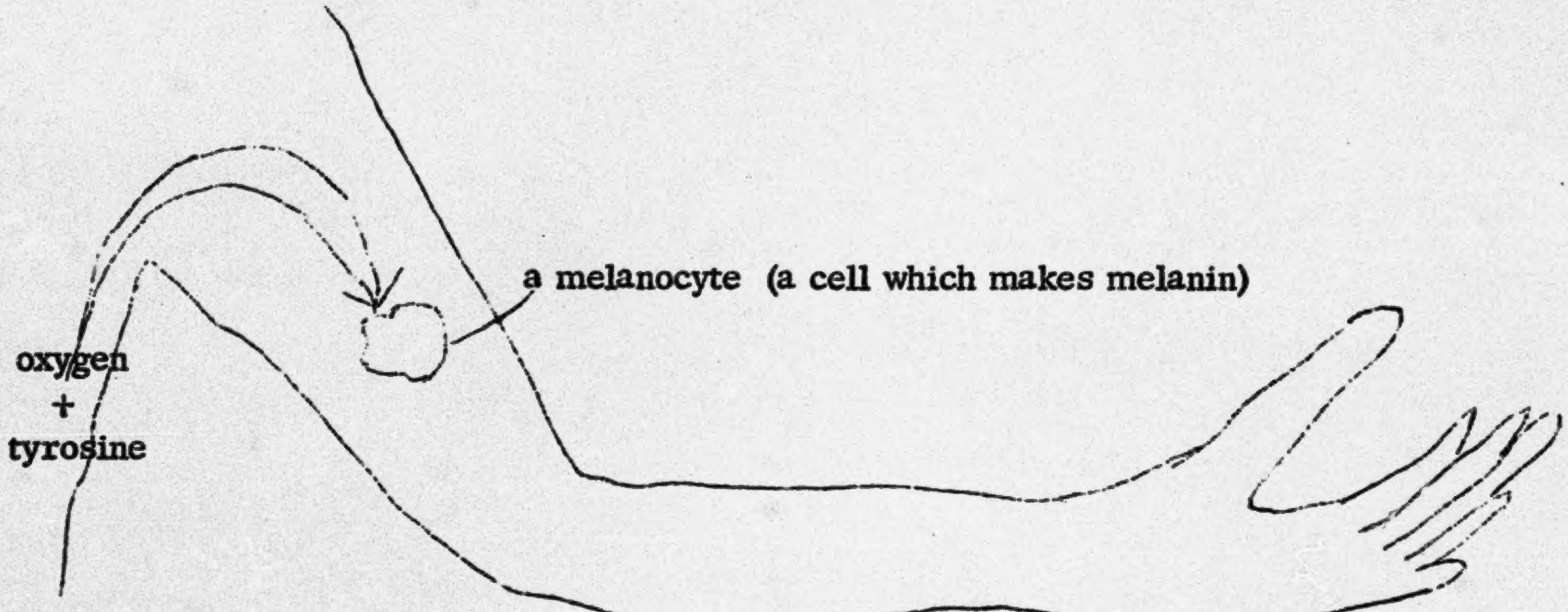
A suggestion about introducing the lesson: Today our social studies (or "All about us") is going to be a lot like a science lesson. Can anyone tell me what science is? What do scientists do? What do they study? (Draw the children out in such a way that if possible they will come up with the idea that science is how we know what we know, how we find out how things work, how we find out why things are made the way they are made, or something approximating this idea. Zip through this as swiftly as possible, though, to get to the question: But we are studying people; what might science have to do with people (on the assumption that most of the science they will have come up with has mostly to do with things)?

Suggested way to proceed with the lesson: Children put all their arms together (with yours) to share and compare; what do they see? (Many shades)
Put white piece of paper next to the accumulated arms; what color is the piece of paper?
What color are we? Are we the same color as the piece of paper? Would you like to be?
Bring out the uncut potato; ask a child to cut it. "What color is it? we will watch it and see if anything happens."
Now look at the sliced potato, which will have started to turn dark.
"Guess what? We get to be the color we are much the same way the cut potato gets its color.
When do we change color like the potato? (In the sun)
Do you know why?"
(Illustration: The following diagrams may be considered as either to aid the teacher in clarification of the melanin-production process or as illustrations the teacher may reproduce for the children.)


oxygen
in air we breathe
Meat
Milk

tyrosine (an enzyme) made up of amino acid
in meat and milk + cheese

OXYGEN + TYROSINE= MELANIN


oxygen
+
tyrosine

a melanocyte (a cell which makes melanin)

Do any of us have parts of our skin that gets darker than the rest when we're in the sun? (Freckles)
An enzyme called tyrosine combines with the oxygen we breathe in cells in our skin to make melanin.
Tyrosine comes from meat and milk; oxygen comes from the air.
How many cells we have that make melanin depends on how many cells our parents had (or their parents, etc.)

If our melanin cells are spread around a lot, we aren't very dark and we get sunburns.
Or if we don't have many melanin cells at all, ditto.
Some people don't have any melanin cells, or very very few; they are called albinos. They must be very very careful about even going outdoors into light.
(IS HAVING MELANIN CELLS A GOOD THING?)
The melanin cells we got from our parents in how we get the color eyes, hair, and skin we have.
We have all kinds of different combinations of hair, skin, eyes.
(CHILDREN CHECK EACH OTHER OUT; does dark hair always go with dark eyes or dark skin? Blond hair with blue eyes? Dark hair with dark eyes? Answer: no.)
The same melanin which gives us brown eyes gives Indians brown skin; it is reddish brown, but still brown.
Ditto for giving Japanese people and Chinese people yellowish brown skin, yellowish brown, but still BROWN and not yellow.
(ARE WE ALL THE SAME KIND OF BROWN; are some of us yellowish brown, some reddish/pink brown, some brown brown? Get children to describe difference when arms put together.)
How do other living things get their color?
Squash, bananas, carrots, peas, spinach, lettuce, etc. etc. Have examples there, and make use of the two books for explanation according to your own judgment.

Lower Grade Unit Lesson Plans

Developed By Teachers In Lowell Title I Program

July 20, 1967

Division C

Subject Area - Social Studies

Unit - Race and Culture in American Life

Objectives:

1. To distinguish between things people do, what they are, and how they feel.

2. To have the children start thinking and talking about themselves.

Procedures:

1. Invite the children to tell us all about themselves. (Where they go to school, in what grade, what they like to do)

2. Introduce five cards on which there are feelings, doings, and what people are.

3. Ask for additional descriptive words.

4. Tell a short story about a boy or girl so that at the end, the children could pick out a few cards that described the story.

5. Have the children draw their feelings about a particular word.
(ex. How would you look if you were
happy
big etc.)

Materials:

Crayons
paper
cards
magic markers

Lesson Plan, Social Studies - "Follow-Up on Individual Feelings"

Aims:

(1) To help children in becoming aware of self and relationship of self to the rest of the world.

(2) To see whether children have an understanding of feel words: glad, sad, good, bad, etc.

Procedures:

(1) The teacher will tell the group she is going to read a story and they are going to help her by filling in words.

(2) Read the story, "Jack is Glad."

(3) On some pages, let the group fill in the word that tells how they think Jack feels.

(4) Discuss some questions from the Random House Manual on Elementary Guidance, pp. 26-27. (Questions used will depend on the teacher's judgment of what the group may be able to handle.)

Materials Needed:

Book Jack is Glad

Teacher's Guide, Random House Program for Elementary Guidance

Social Studies

Lesson: Individual Comparisons

Objectives:

(1) To have the children study individual differences and similarities

(2) To have the children learn more about themselves and others

(3) To provide the children with experiences of talking and observing differences

(4) To have the children learn about their skin

Materials:

Paper, crayons, pencils, large pad of paper, Your Skin and Mine by Paul Showers, scissors, nail clipper, pin, blindfold, balloon, brush, paint, cotton, and magnifying glasses.

Procedure:

(1) Have the children compare foot size, hand shape, hair color, height, eye color. (Make list of names under various categories.)

(2) Then compare skins. All put their arms together next to a piece of white paper. Ask what color the paper is, and then what color is their skin.

(3) Proceed with introduction into the book, Your Skin and Mine.

(4) Have the children examine their own skin and each other's skin with magnifying glasses. Question: "What do you see?"

(5) Demonstration of cutting a piece of hair and nail. Show that when they cut there is no pain. Question: "Suppose I jab myself or you with a pin. Would there be any feeling then?"

(6) Blindfold game, to show that skin has feeling

(7) Examination of fingertips with magnifying glass. Question: "What do you see?"

(8) Make sets of fingerprints. Have the children compare one another's fingerprints.

(9) Discussion of the children's own experiences with goose flesh, sweat, and scabs.

(10) Discussion of melanin. Question: "Who in this group has skin that makes the most melanin? the least?"

Lesson Plan, Social Studies - "Interaction"

Aims:

(1) To have the children become aware of the word interaction.

(2) To have the children realize that there are some things we usually do alone, some things that must be done with others, and some things that are more fun to do alone.

Procedures:

(1) Introduce the word interaction by use of an illustrated chart.

(2) Read a story to the group, "Me First," from Dandy Dog Series. Have the children follow along in picture books.

(3) From the story lead into a discussion about other grames that we need someone else to play with.

(4) Discuss the pictures of people doing things and where interaction is taking place.

(5) Have the group make a list of things one does alone most of the time, things that must be done with others, and things that are more fun when done with others.

(6) Act out situations involving interaction.

Materials Needed:

Magic marker, newsprint paper, booklets, "Me First," Dandy Dog Manual, and several pictures of people doing different kinds of things.

Lesson Plan, Social Studies - "Norms and Values" (Shoulds and Shouldn'ts)

Aims:

(1) To make a list of rules for camp that come from the children.

(2) To have the children realize that each rule has a valid reason (why the rule.)

(3) To have the children realize that these rules should apply to all.

Procedures:

(1) Tell the children that they are going to make up a list of rules for their camp...try to emphasize shoulds.

(2) List the rules on large newsprint paper as they are given. Each rule should be discussed as to why it is needed.

(3) Let the children choose one or two rules to illustrate on drawing paper.

Materials Needed:

Large newsprint paper
Magic marker
12x18 drawing paper
Crayons

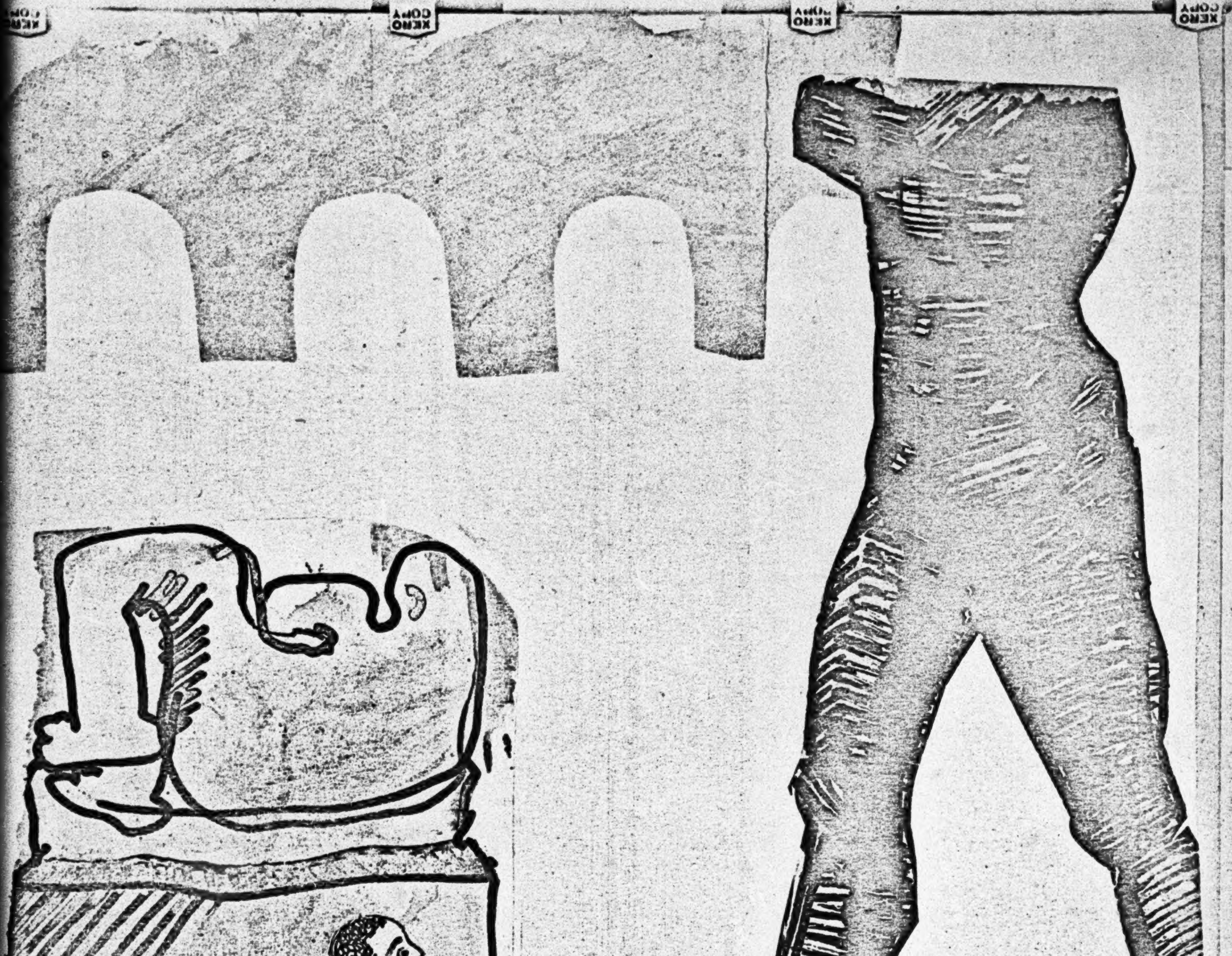
ROBERT

A Booklet for Children Written and Illustrated Under the

Supervision of the Lower Grade Working Party

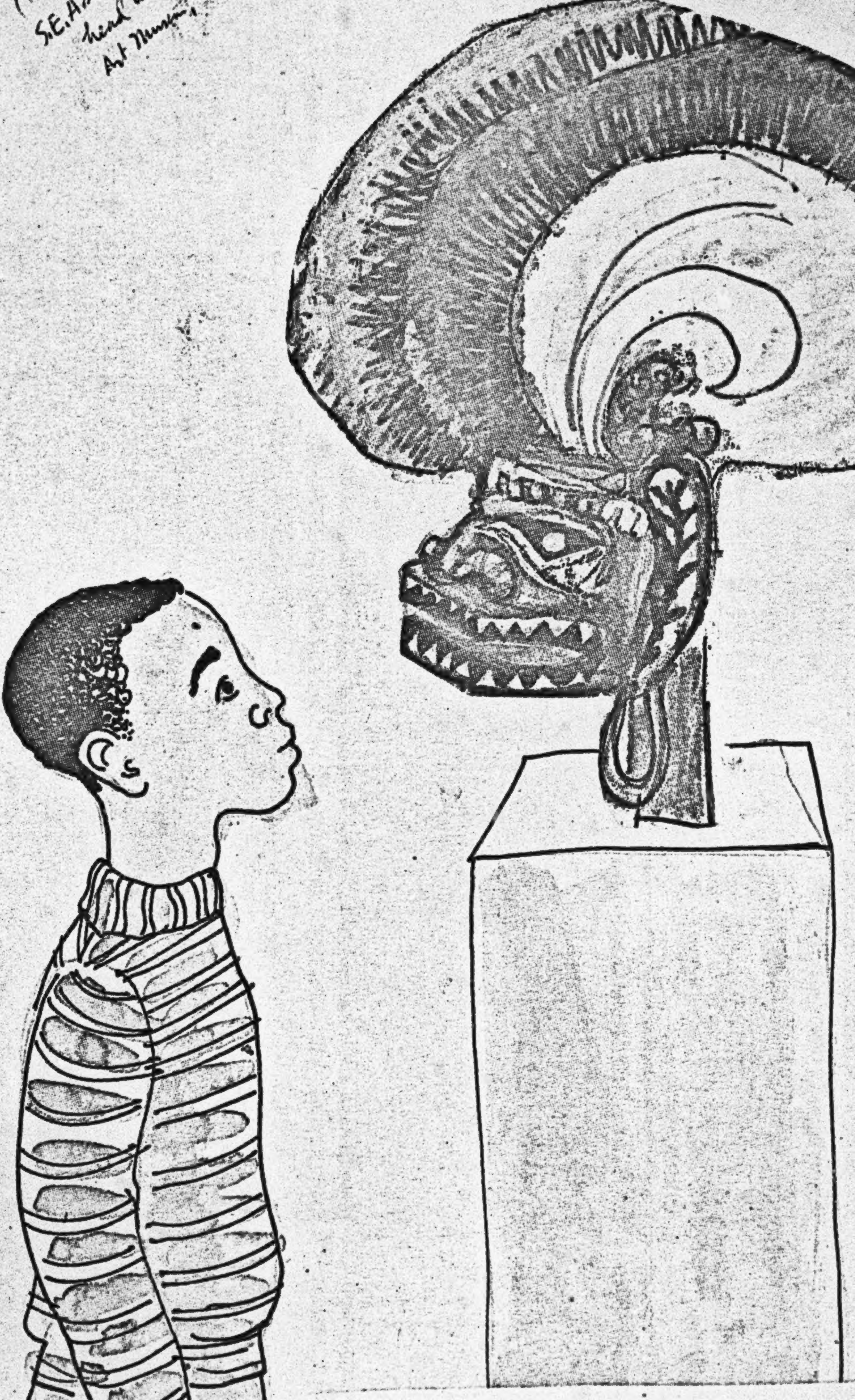
for

The Lower Grade Unit



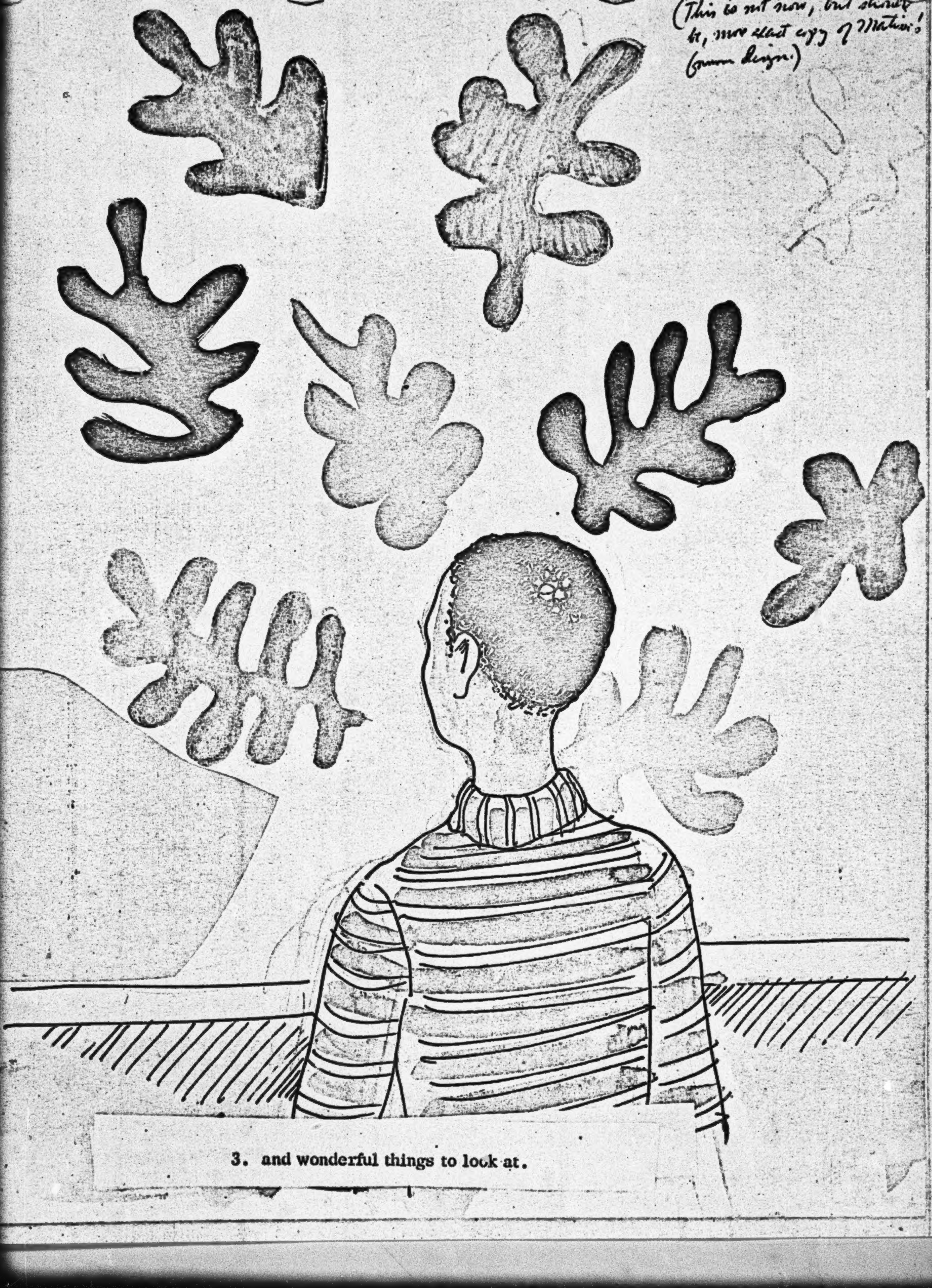
1. This is Robert at the Art Museum when he was six years old. He liked the Museum.

(This is a
S.E. Asian
head in City
Art Museum, St.L.)

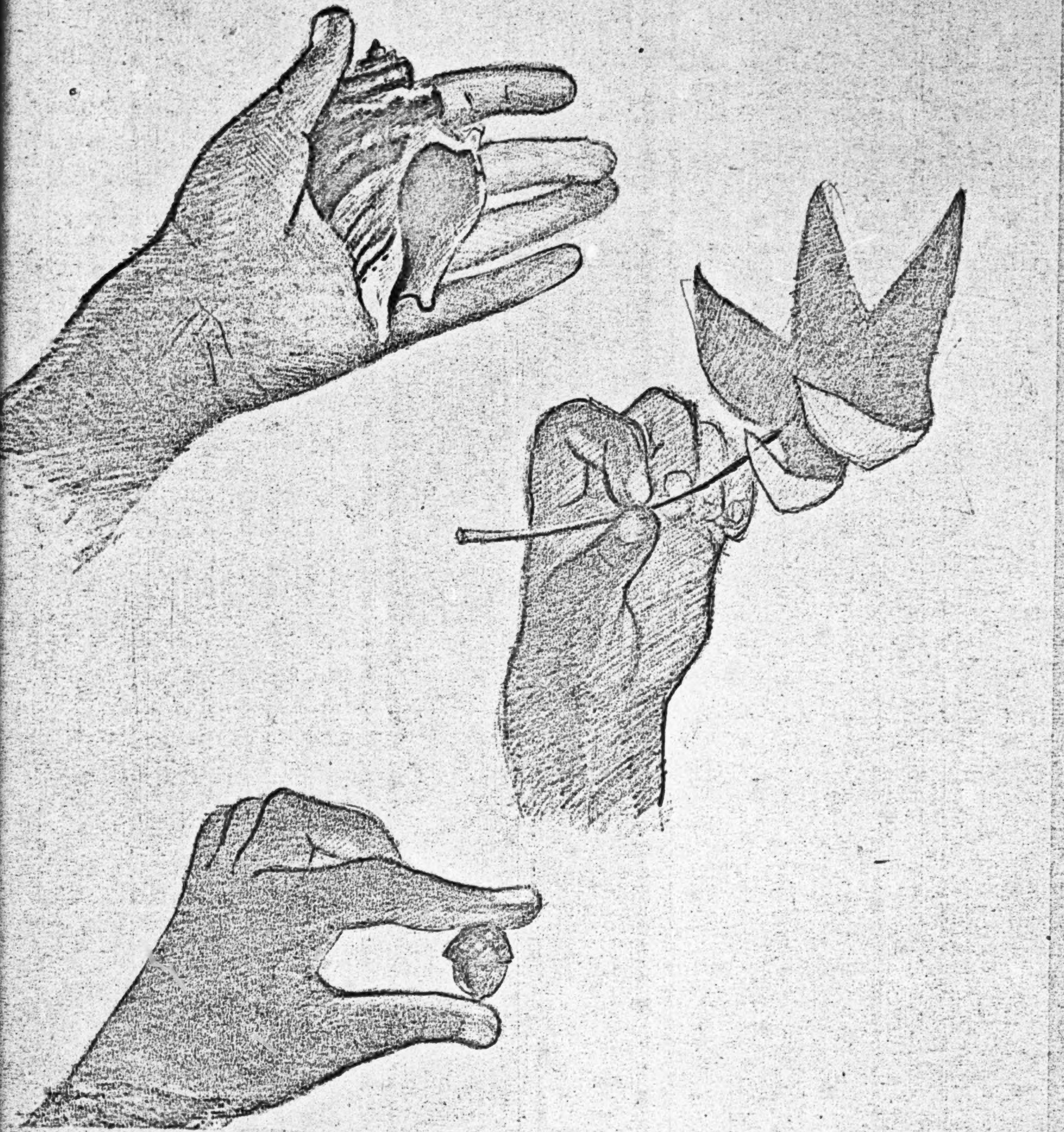


2. It was full of fierce things to look at

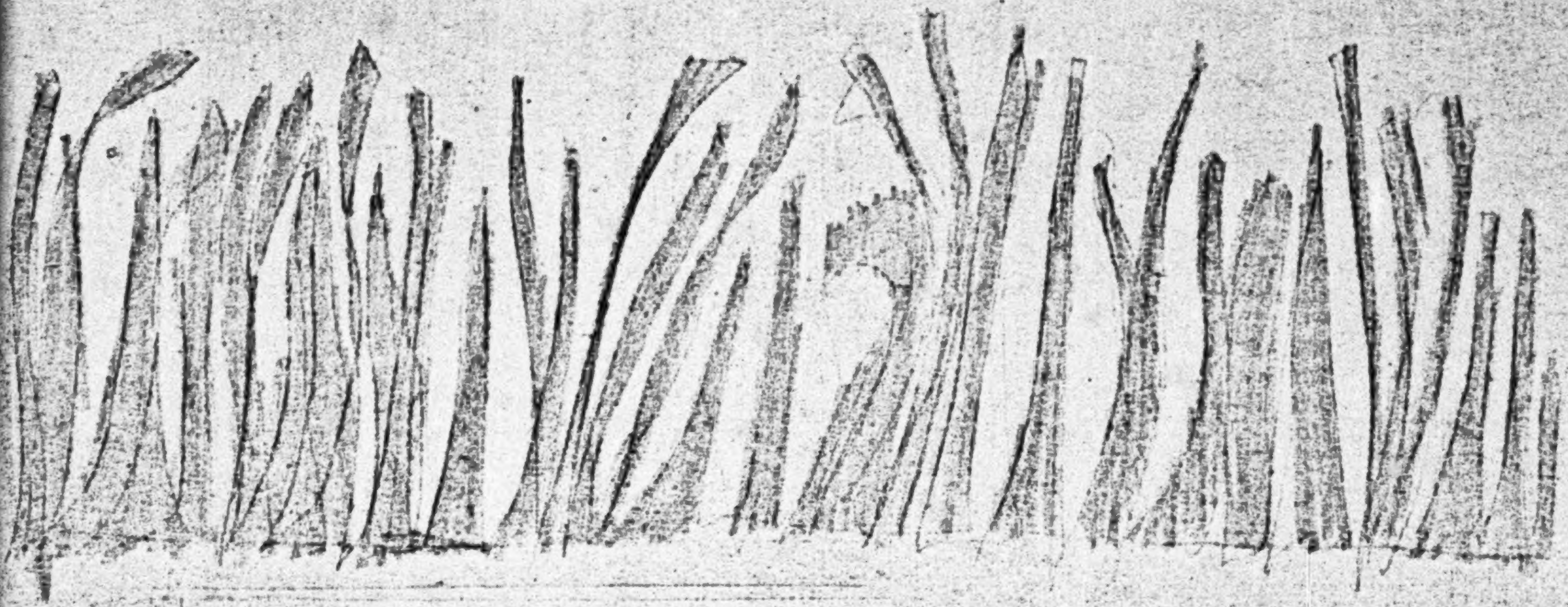
(This is not now, but should be, more exact copy of Matisse! (famous design.)



3. and wonderful things to look at.

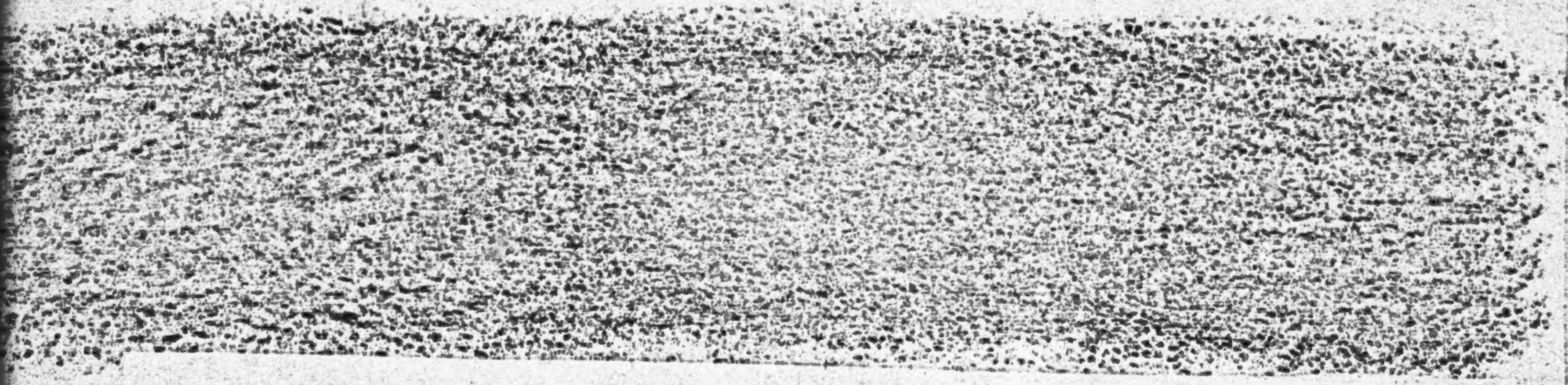


4. Outside, on the sidewalk, in the park, and on the beach, Robert saw many objects that he looked at for a long time. He liked to look at everything.

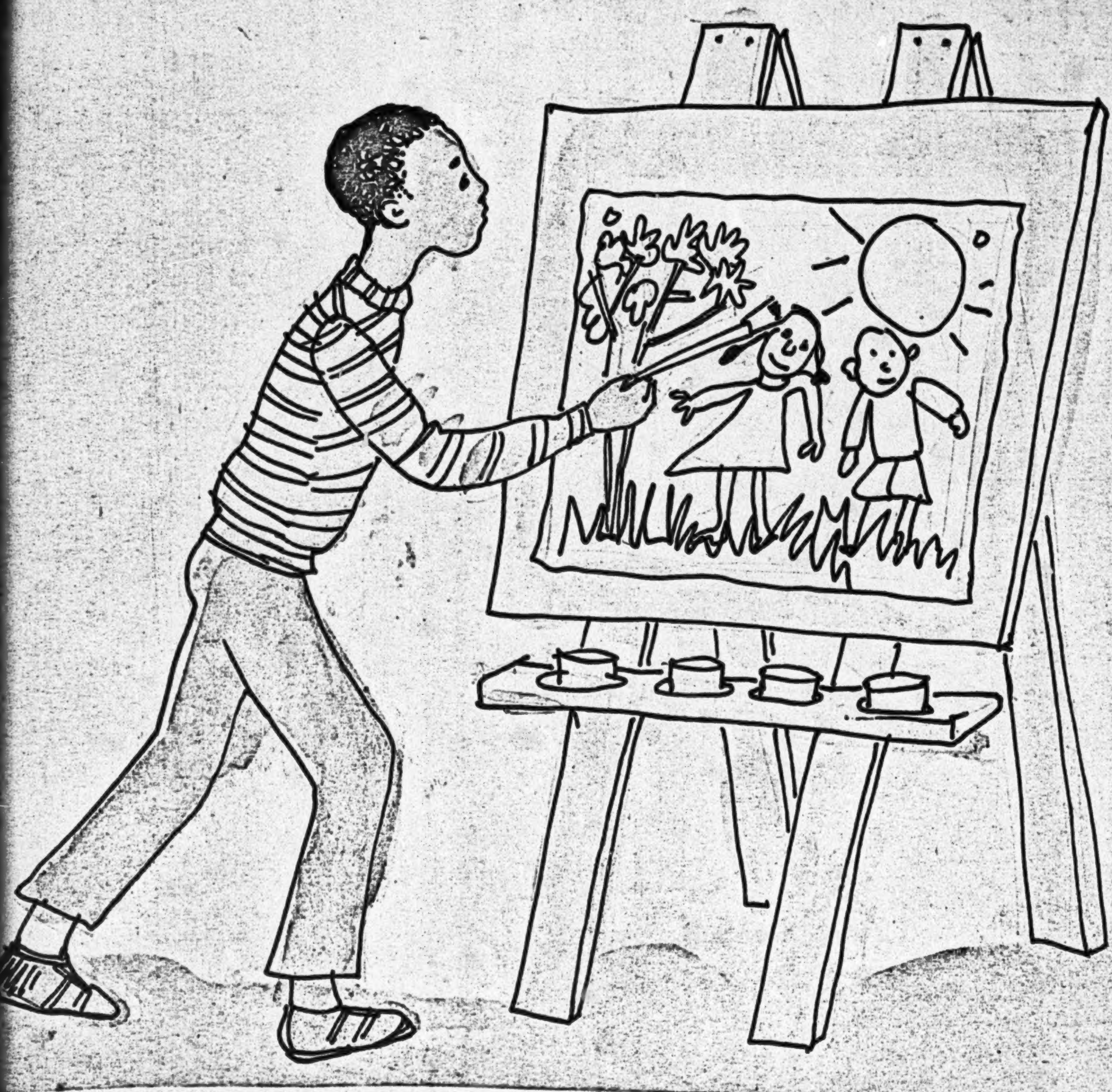


5. He looked at grass

and at sand

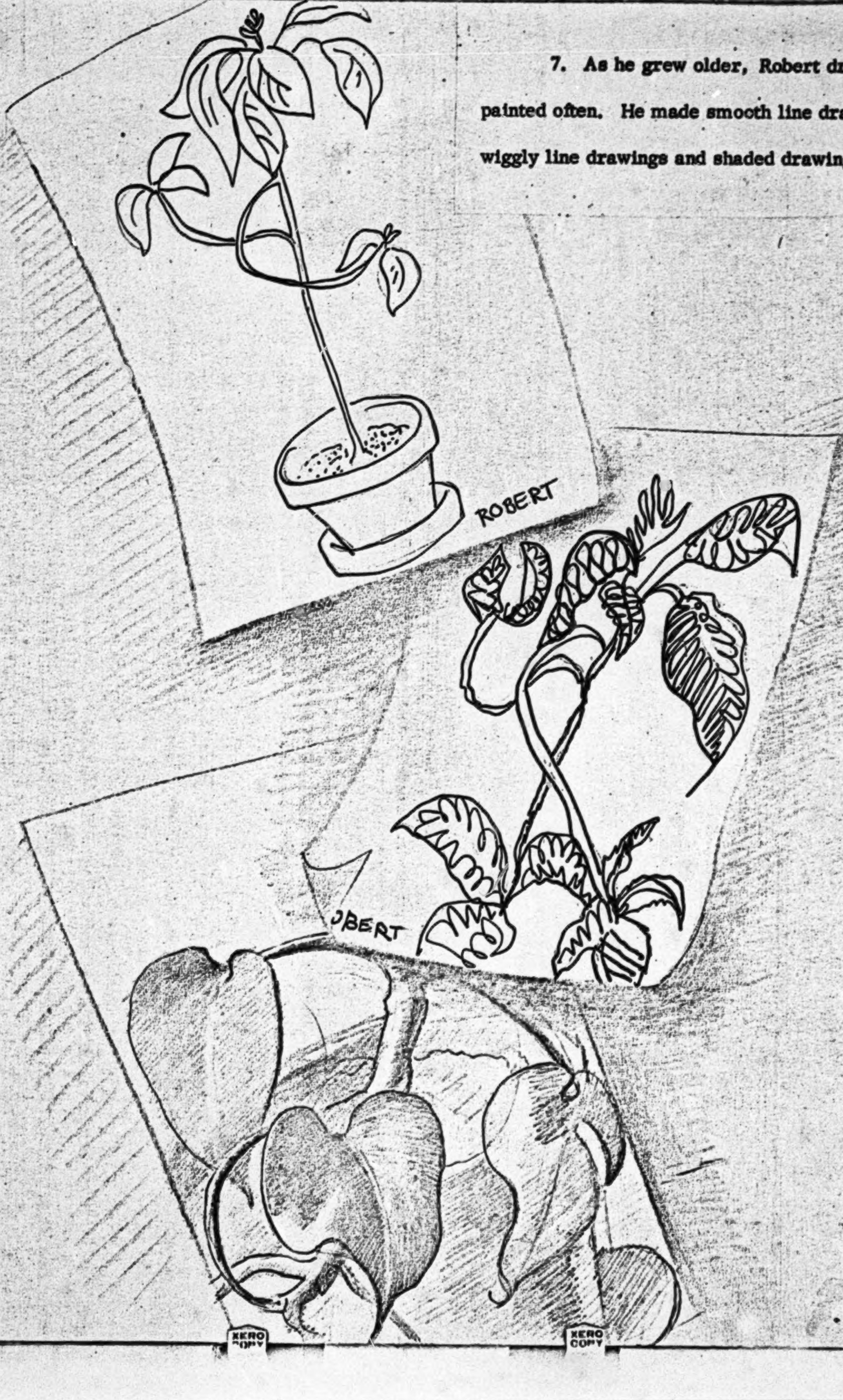


and at rainbow colors made by oil and water in the street.



6. At school, Robert drew and painted pictures of the things he liked to look at.

7. As he grew older, Robert drew and painted often. He made smooth line drawings, wiggly line drawings and shaded drawings.



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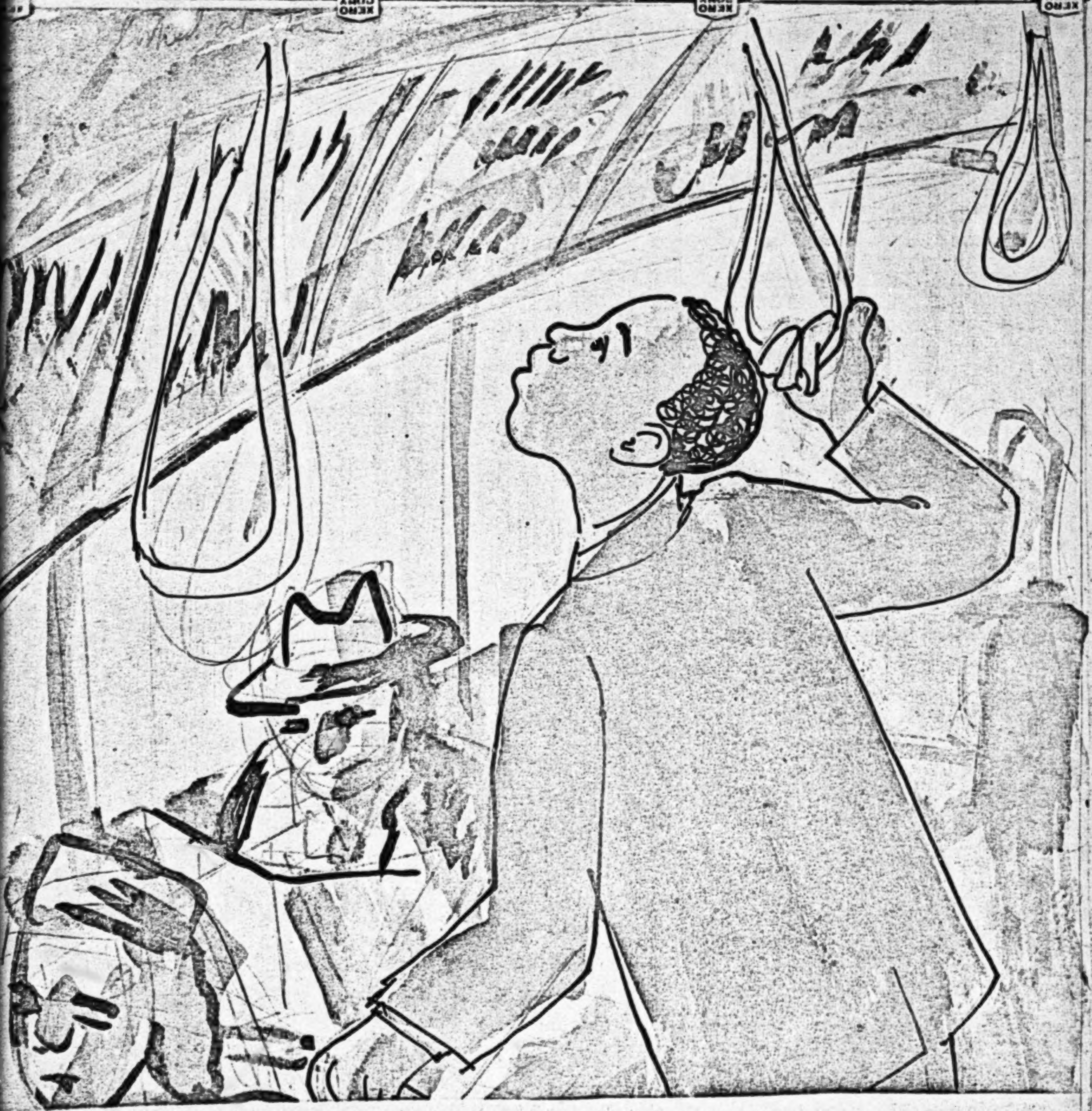
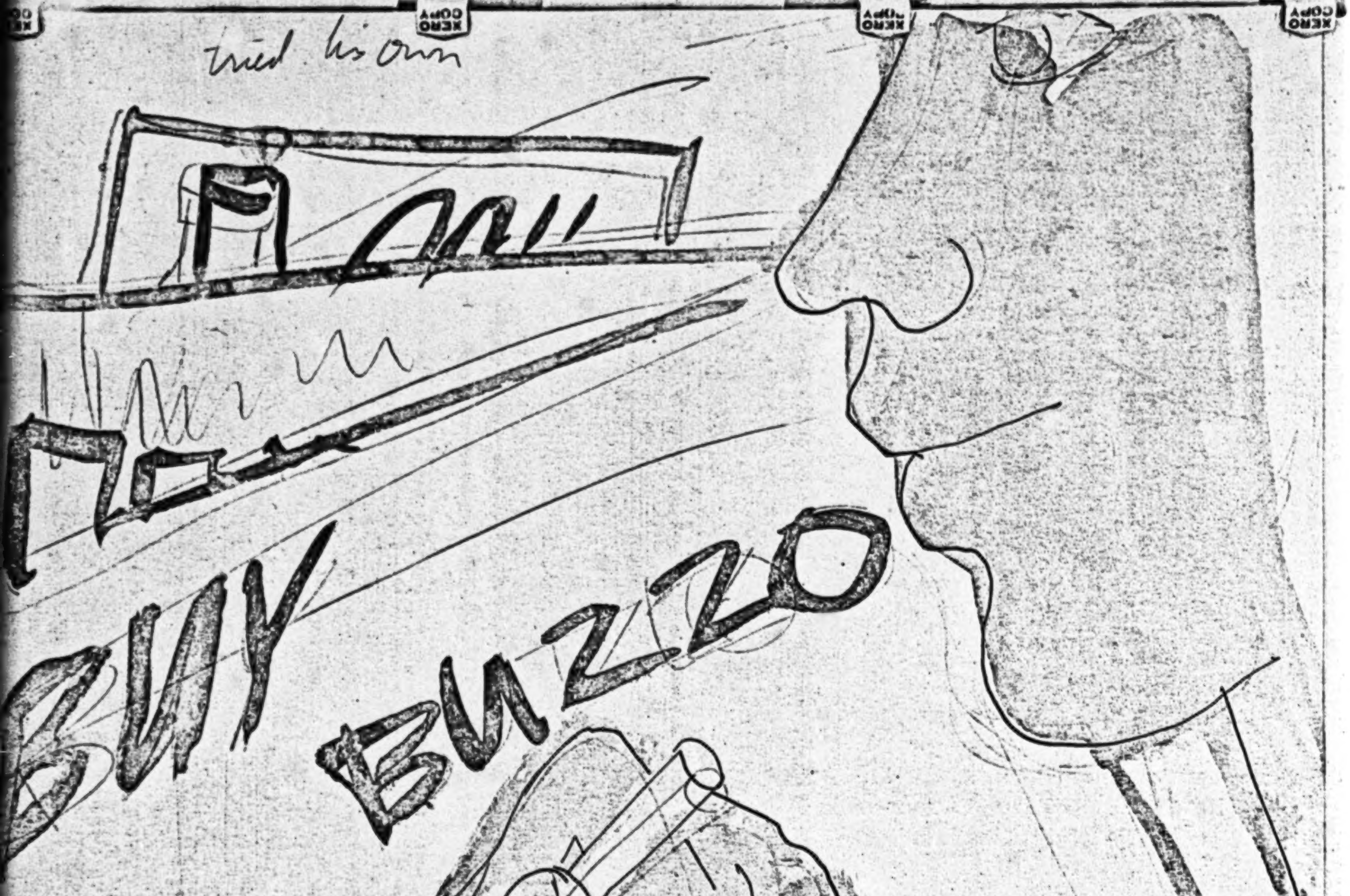
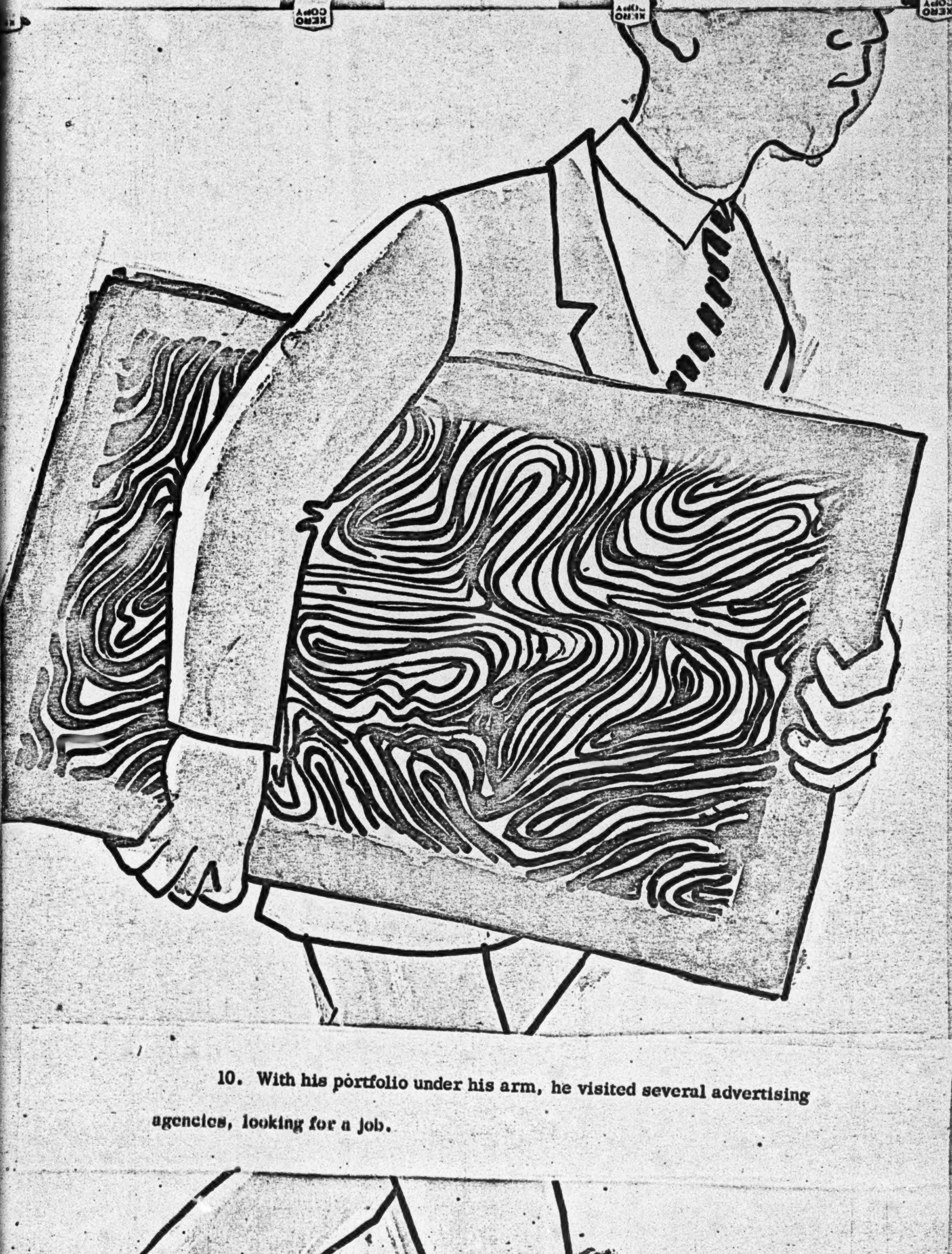


8. When he graduated from high school, it was time for Robert to look for a job. He wasn't sure yet what kind of work he would like to do most of all. While he was riding on a bus one day, the bright colors of advertising posters caught his eye. "I could make signs like these," he thought. He studied the advertisements and noticed that pictures and letters were drawn and placed so that people would notice the name of a product and would want to buy it.

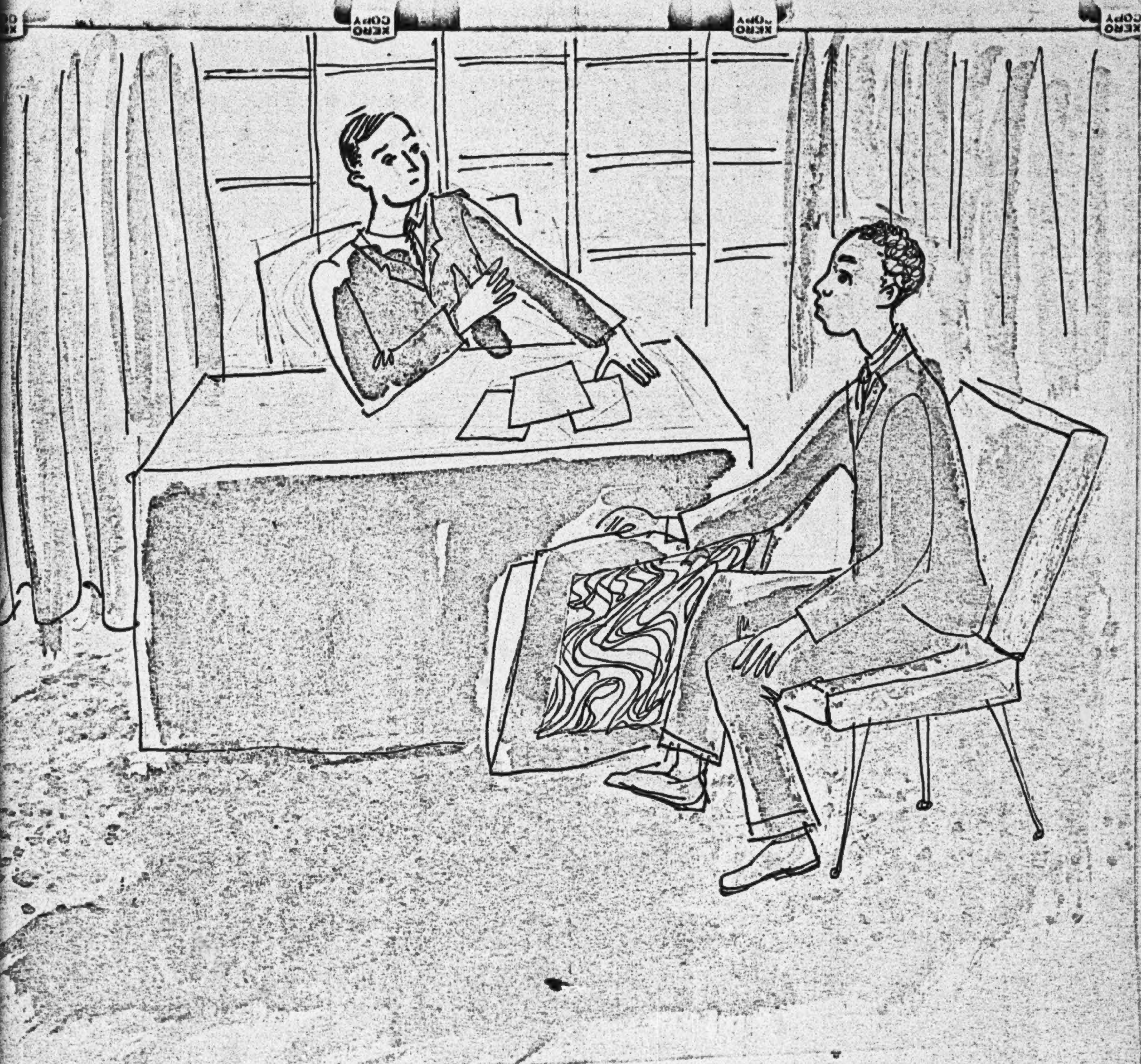


tried his own

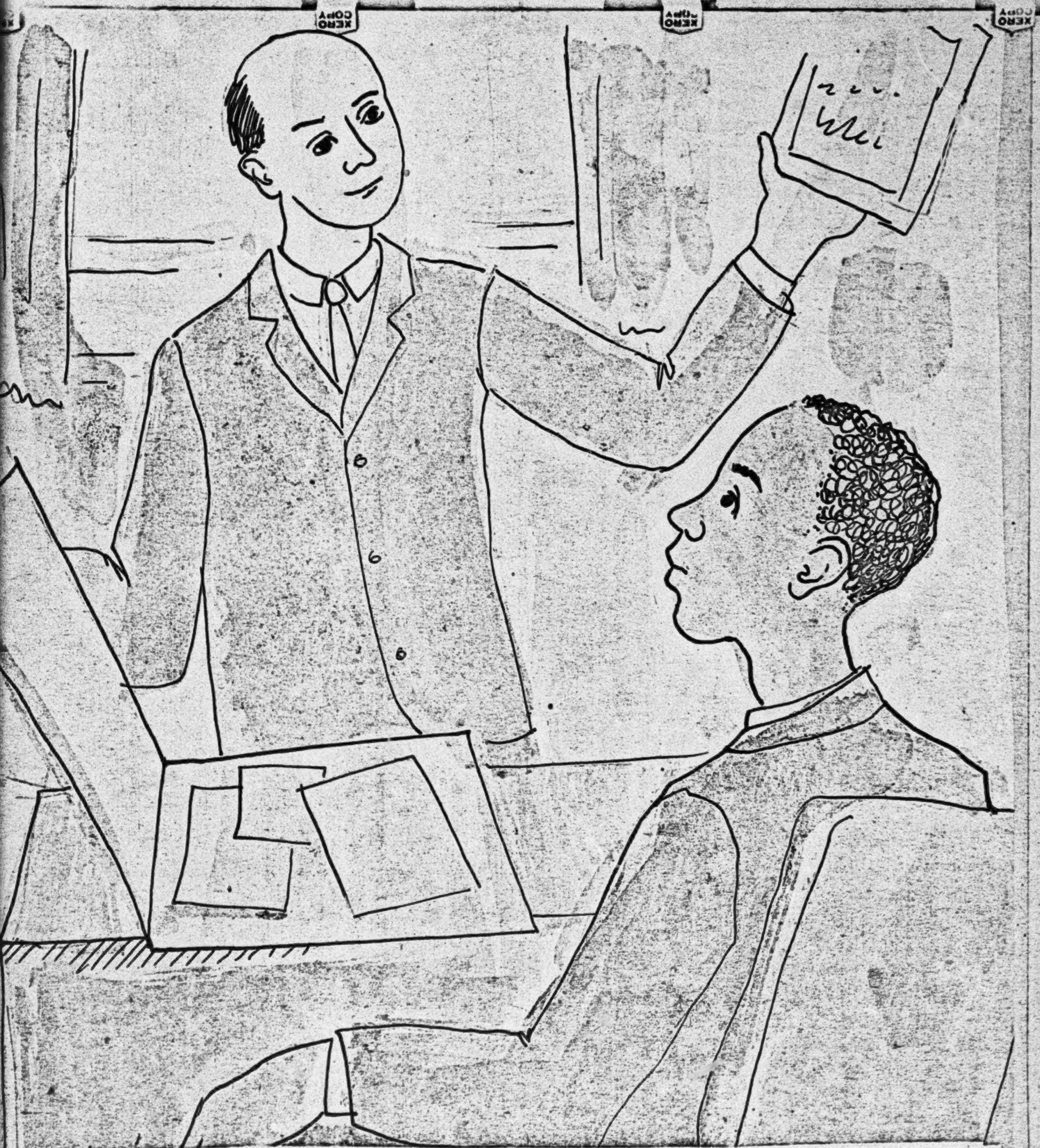
9. At home he invented some ads. When he had made several that he liked, he put them in a portfolio.



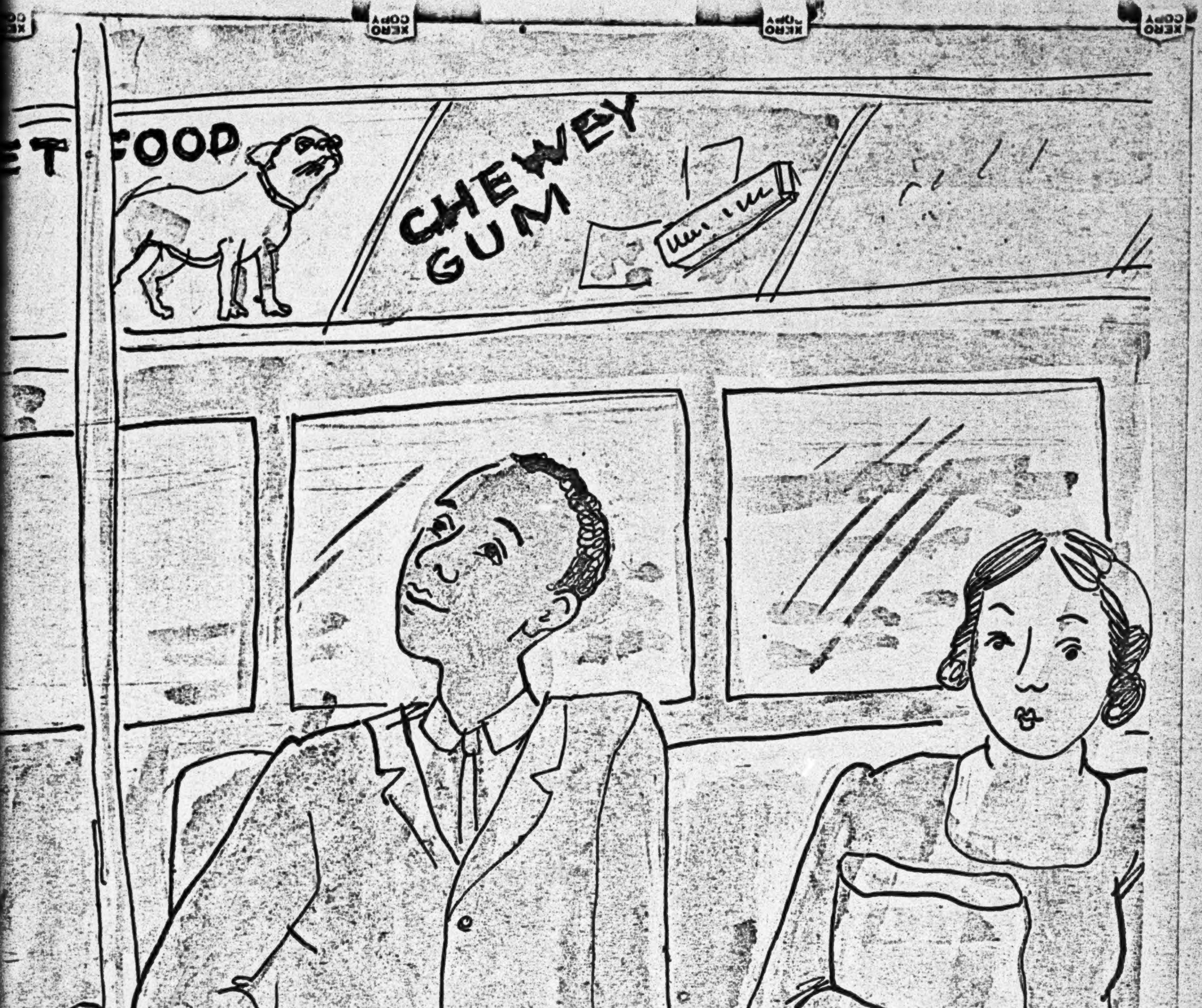
10. With his portfolio under his arm, he visited several advertising agencies, looking for a job.



11. A man at one office looked at some of Robert's drawings and said, "Your pictures aren't bad, but we don't need anyone at the moment."



12. At another office, Robert talked with Mr. Weber, who looked carefully at Robert's drawings. He seemed to like them. "I think you will be able to do the work here, and I think you will enjoy it," he said. "We design advertisements for many products."



13. The next day Robert started to work at Mr. Weber's office. Soon the advertisements that he designed were printed in newspapers and magazines. They could be seen on T.V. Whenever Robert rode a bus he glanced up at all the advertising posters. Sometimes his eyes stopped at one particular sign, and he seemed to be very pleased with himself.

D. LOWER GRADE UNIT BIBLIOGRAPHY

D. LOWER GRADE UNIT BIBLIOGRAPHY

For Children

Buckley, Peter, and Jones, Hortense. William, Andy, and Ramon and Five Friends at School, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966.

These first two volumes of the Holt Urban Social Studies Series more closely approximate an ideal treatment of racial and cultural diversity in American life in text materials for this grade level than almost any other elementary social studies series seen in this Project.

Clayton, Ed. Martin Luther King: The Peaceful Warrior, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.

Koblitz, Minnie. The American Negro in Children's Literature: A Bibliography, New York: The Center for Urban Education, 1967.

This bibliography, annotated in a constructively critical way, is the best single source of trade books for the K-6 level for use with the Lower Grade Unit. It is particularly valuable for teachers in that it lists with each book the reading level, the interest level, and the price of the book. The addresses of all publishers are included at the end of the pamphlet. It is extremely well organized by grade/reading level and by type of book (fiction, biography, etc.) Since the degree to which the Lower Grade Unit deals with the American Negro in particular depends in large part for its success upon the liberal use of trade books in the classroom, the Lower Grade Unit strongly recommends that any teacher planning to use the Lower Grade Unit have at her disposal the funds for purchase of the books in this bibliography. If the class with which she is dealing is at the K, Grade 1 or 2 level, a selection of the books specified for that interest/reading level would suffice; however, at the Grade 3 level or above, probably almost all of the books should be made available to the children.

The bibliography is available -- 1 copy free, 25¢ for more than one -- from: The Center for Urban Education, 33 West 42nd Street, New York, N.Y. 10016.

Lerner, Marguerite Rush. Red Man, White Man, African Chief: The Story of Skin Color, Minneapolis: Lerner Publications, 1961.

Reese, Thelma Kier. Basic Social Studies Discussion Pictures, Glencoe: Row, Peterson and Company, 1958.

This set of drawings, while not multi-ethnic and sometimes prone to moralisms, does deal specifically with cause and effect in human behavior on a K-3 level.

Roeper, Annemarie. Who Started It? San Francisco: Center for the Gifted Child, Inc., 1963.

Showers, Paul, and Galdone, Paul. Your Skin and Mine. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1965.

Perhaps a valuable preface to Red Man, White Man, African Chief: The Story of Skin Color. It deals with skin color difference in passing and at a more elementary reading level than the Lerner book.

Wright, Betty. Urban Education Studies, New York: The John Day Company, Inc., 1965.

This is a series of eight Basic and six Special City Albums, with accompanying teachers' guide, which are made up of large black and white 18"x18" photographs -- usually of urban scenes and often of multi-ethnic composition. As indicated in Section B, Content, of this final report, open-ended pictures are often called for in the use of the Lower Grade Unit. This series is one valuable source of appropriate pictures.

The series is available from: The John Day Company, Inc., 62 West 45th Street, New York, N.Y. 10036. While it is too expensive a purchase for the use of a single teacher, it is a "must" acquisition for any elementary school library. Its original design as a tool for language arts instruction at the entire K-6 level broadens its usefulness for the elementary school library far beyond the limits of the Lower Grade Unit.

For Teachers

Several of the items listed above contain bibliographies for teachers and/or are valuable resources for the teacher's own information. However, in addition, the Lower Grade Working Party also recommends the following:

BOOKS

Nonfiction

Alpenfels, Ethel J. Sense and Nonsense About Race. New York: Friendship Press, 1957.

Coles, Robert. Children of Crisis. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967.

Erikson, Erik. Childhood and Society. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1950.

Handlin, Oscar. The Uprooted. New York: Grosset & Dunlap (Universal Library), 1951.

Joyce, Bruce R. Strategies for Elementary Social Science Education. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

Miel, Alice, with Edwin Kiester, Jr. The Shortchanged Children of Suburbia. New York: The Institute of Human Relations Press of the American Jewish Committee, 165 East 56th Street, New York, New York 10022. (75¢).

Fiction

Baldwin, James. The Fire Next Time. New York: The Dial Press, Inc., 1962.

Rollins, Bryant. Danger Song. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967.

Roth, Henry. Call It Sleep. New York: Avon Books, 1934.

FILMS

Newman, Robert. "5 1/2--Reflections on an Age." United Church of Christ, 1966. (1505 Race Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19102).

ARTICLES

Baldwin, James. "A Talk to Teachers," Saturday Review, December 21, 1963.

Black, Hillel. "What Our Children Read," Saturday Evening Post, October 7, 1967.

Bunge, William. "Racism in Geography," Crisis (NAACP Quarterly), Spring 1965.

Dennis, Jack. "The Study of the Role of the School in Political Socialization," (mimeo.) The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts, April 10, 1965.

Fried, M.H. "The Four Letter Word That Hurts," Saturday Review, October 2, 1965.

Larrick, Nancy. "The All-White World of Children's Books," Saturday Review, September 11, 1965.

Miel, Alice, with Edwin Kiester, Jr. "The Shortchanged Children," New York Times Magazine, April, 1967, Part I.

III. THE UPPER GRADE UNIT

A. AN OVERVIEW OF THE UPPER GRADE UNIT

The Upper Grade Working Party was chaired by Dr. John S. Gibson, and much of its activity was coordinated by Mrs. John Hilbert of the Newton (Massachusetts) school system. Other members of this group were Mrs. William D. Davidson, Lexington (Massachusetts) public schools; Miss Mary Lou Denning, Lowell (Massachusetts) public schools; Mr. Frank Lyman, Lexington; Mrs. Paul Reinhart, Lesley College; and Mrs. Bryant Rollins, Hilltop Day Care Center, Roxbury, Massachusetts.

During the fall of 1966, members of the working party spent considerable time discussing how best to organize the content and methodology of the unit. They decided to develop an instructional program at the intermediate grade level for use in the United States history course which would be quite flexible as far as weaving the unit into the course was concerned. The group wanted to give the teacher these two basic options: teaching the unit during a specific period of time (six to eight weeks) or using the unit throughout the school year along with other instructional materials on United States history. Although the unit can be used within a specific time period, it is the hope of the project staff that it will be incorporated into the total year's program in history.

The unit has two parts: an introductory section and a number of subunits on various themes and eras in American history. The introductory part normally takes about twelve class sessions to teach, and each subunit is constructed so as to utilize the four interrelated segments of the introductory section. It is necessary to teach the introductory section before using the subunits in the second part of the unit. It is possible for a teacher to use the introductory section and then to develop her own program in history without relying upon the subunits. The staff firmly recommends, however, that both sections of the unit be used as fully as possible.

Introductory Section of the Upper Grade Unit: The four interdependent principles of the introductory section are the governing process; a trilogy which says that all people are the same in some ways, some (groups or categories) are different in some ways, and in some ways each person is different from every other person; the relationships between ideal and reality; and questions and issues dealing with the here and now. These principles are developed in the classroom by the inductive process as outlined in Part B of this section of the report. These four principles are woven throughout each of the historical subunits of the Upper Grade Unit and thus provide the methodological and pedagogical foundations for the entire unit which relates issues and problems of racial and cultural diversity in America to the history of the nation.

The unit begins with the governing process (see Appendix A, Section VI of this report for the intellectual foundations of this approach to political science). This entrée to the unit gives students an idea of the process of governing, the role of the rulers and the ruled, the function of rules or policy, ways to affect policy, the process of decision-making, and the structure in which decision-making takes place, or government. This approach serves the function in the subunits on problems and issues of United States history to help students to consider ways in which national policy throughout the nation's history has or has not been effective in expanding democratic human relations in the American society. The governing process has been found to be a subtle and useful way to begin teaching about race and culture in American life.

The teachers and students then proceed to the "trilogy" principle which helps them to think out sameness and differences in human beings and to begin to recognize the harm in attaching bigoted and prejudiced images to differences in others. The students sort out the three parts of the trilogy in the classroom, first by dealing with sameness and differences of a neutral nature and then by delving into patterns of diversity which are concerned with race, creed, and national origin.

The third segment of the introductory section of the unit explores relations between ideals and realities as they affect the student, his family, and some elementary issues in American history. This is intended to help the student to realize the necessity of bringing the ideals and realities of democratic human relations in a free society closer together. The "here and now" part of the introductory section uses the governing process, the trilogy, and the ideal-reality principle to focus upon some problems and realities which students experience in their everyday lives. This part is used throughout the subunits to relate problems and issues in United States history to parallel situations in contemporary life (e.g., relating the protests at the time of the Declaration of

Independence to protests and political participation today).

The introductory section, therefore, provides the foundations for the teaching of the specific periods of American history in the subunit section. They open the door for role playing, discovery, gaming, and other means for involving the student in the teaching-learning process. This section is structured so as to enable students to develop their own textbook. Each student should have a three-ring notebook into which he or she puts all observations, drawings about the governing process, lists of sameness and differences, examples of ideals and realities, and other assigned material. In all the classrooms where the introductory section has been used, it has been an easy matter to involve students in the inductive process and to stimulate them to view some problems of diversity in an intellectually exciting manner.

Subunit Section of the Upper Grade Unit: Part B of this section of the report also includes subunits on the Indians and on the Declaration of Independence. Additional subunits will be written by the project staff during 1967-1968 on such issues and epochs as the colonial period, the Constitution, immigration, the Know-Nothing Party, the Emancipation Proclamation, the Civil War Amendments to the Constitution, the Dawes Act of 1887, Plessy v. Ferguson of 1896, the Exclusion Agreements with Japan, President Wilson's appointment of Louis Brandeis to the Supreme Court, the Brown Case of 1954, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and others. These are all periods or junctures of American history which can effectively illustrate critical problems and issues in the area of intergroup relations in American life. They can be presented by using the approaches set forth in the introductory part of this Upper Grade Unit. Many of the subunits deal with parts of United States history which the intermediate level teacher would normally include in his course. Once the introductory part of the unit is presented to students, however, the teacher has many opportunities to weave problems of intergroup relations into the course.

Part C of this section of the report describes the teaching of the Upper Grade Unit during the spring of 1967 and also during the summer period. It is important to note that during the developmental phase of the introduction to the unit, the four basic principles were taught in several school systems and then revised in view of classroom experiences and student and teacher reactions. Staff recommendations concerning the teaching of the unit and means to help teachers to use these materials in the classroom are also set forth in Part C. Part D is a bibliography of materials for teachers and students on the two subunits dealing with the Indians and the Declaration of Independence.

B. THE CONTENT OF THE UPPER GRADE UNIT

INTRODUCTORY SECTION: UPPER GRADE UNIT

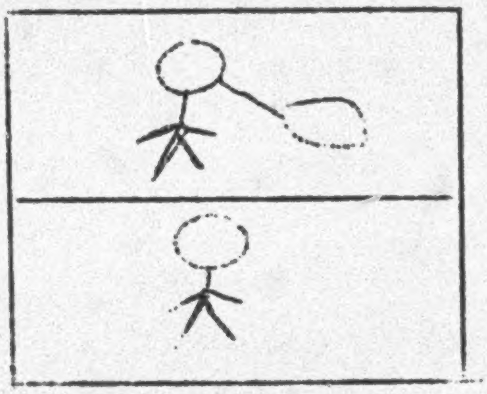
The Governing Process
The Trilogy (Sameness and Differences)
Ideal and Reality
Here and Now

Introductory Section: Upper Grade Unit

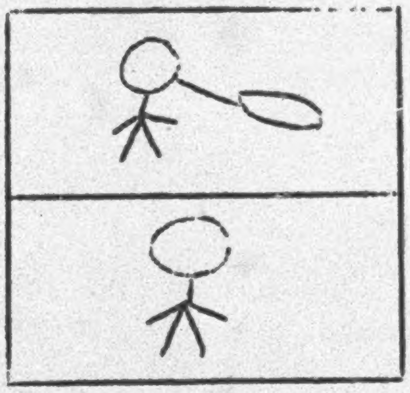
The Governing Process

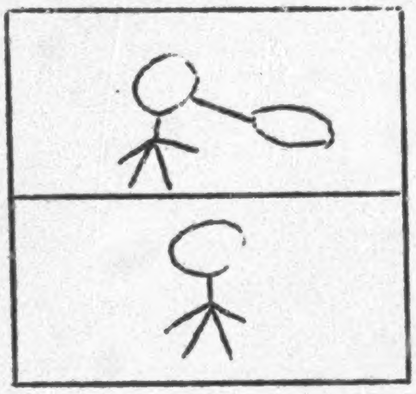
Introducing the Governing Process

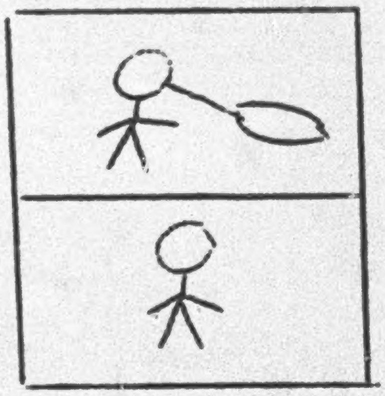
1. Discuss with the children what kinds of things might have happened at home that morning. At the first suggestion of a command or order ("My mother told me to get up," "My father told me to hurry"), draw a stick figure in the top section of a box. Identify that figure as the person who has the power to rule. In the bottom section of the diagram draw a stick figure representing the child, or he who is ruled. Also in the diagram draw a balloon, in which you can put the directive ("Get up") or the rule.



Repeat this diagram, changing the situation as follows: U.S.A., Massachusetts, the school, the football team, in each case having the class identify who would fill the top block, the bottom, and what some of the rules applicable to each diagram might be.







2. Make a list of all the rulers the children can name. Common among these will probably be the President, parents, teacher, policeman, etc. "Are these people ever ruled? When? By Whom?"

3. Put the diagram on the board again, this time drawing a figure in the ruler's box, and many figures in the lower section representing the ruled. Identify them (any group the children wish to name). What might go into the "ruler's" box? As you use the diagram, ask what other words could be used to describe the stick figures. Accept all that are reasonable, but help the children to settle on "he who governs" or the governing power; "those who are governed" or ruled. Ask: "Can you think of a word that begins with P which could be substituted for rules?" Dra out the idea of policy and the word for it. What are some examples of policy at school? (Do not throw snowballs. Do not run in the corridors. Stay on the right hand side of the stairs, etc.) What are the reasons for this policy? (Safety factors; making it easier for everyone to get along; etc.)

   Have the diagram represent the governing process at home. Who would be in the box that represents those who govern? Who would be the governed? What are some of the policies that exist in your house? (Not too much noise; times to go to bed; etc.) Why are these policies established? Discuss.

   Repeat the diagram, using first city government, then national governing process. What are some policies of each? Why? Help the children to see that policy is set to provide the greatest well-being and security for the greatest number of people.

Policy Making Sheet Guidelines

I. Purpose

A. To begin to make students aware of decision making as an active process of governing.

B. To personalize the process of governing by relating decision making to concrete situations.

C. To reinforce the concept of policy (this in the broadest sense: what policy is).

D. To serve as a springboard for further discussion on the reasons for policy, the necessity of having "governors" other than the self, and other related issues.

II. Procedure

The policy making work sheet could be used as an assignment, or as an individual or group in class exercise. In any case, the teacher should follow up the exercise with class discussion based on the students' responses.

K-6 Project

Policy Making

Can you decide for yourself:

	Yes	No	Who?
1. to go to school?			
2. what television shows to watch?			
3. how much to spend on groceries?			
4. where playgrounds will be built?			
5. whom you have as friends?			
6. how long the gym period for physical education should be?			
7. the time school starts?			
8. what to eat for lunch?			
9. how much Hershey bars cost?			
10. what to buy your mother for her birthday?			
11. what clothes to wear?			
12. how many houses will be build on your street?			
13. what games to play after school?			
14. what clothes to buy?			
15. what movies to see?			
16. what books you use in school?			
17. whom to vote for as class president?			
18. where stop lights should be placed?			

Introductory Section: Upper Grade Unit

The Trilogy (Sameness and Differences)

SAMENESS AND DIFFERENCES

New Lesson

Put diagram of ruler and ruled on board. Say: "I went to the dentist (or doctor) last week." Put dentist in block showing power to govern. Put teacher in block of he who is governed. Say: "He told me I must have my tooth pulled." Put what the dentist said in the balloon indicating policy. "How many of you have ever been to the dentist?" (Draw many stick figures in bottom half of diagram.) "That is one of the things that is the same for all of us. Can you tell me some other things about all people that are the same?"

Write the list as the children name different factors. Common and quick to be stated will be such items as the following applying to all people:

1. eat
2. drink
3. sleep
4. have some kind of shelter
5. can be hurt physically
6. can have their feelings hurt
7. celebrate something
8. cry
9. need warmth, etc.

This list may easily include 40 or 50 items. Stop briefly when children disagree, and let them decide (with as little coaching as possible) whether certain items can be included. Conclude this section by bringing out the statement that all people are the same.

Next Session

Say: "Yesterday we talked about the statement, 'All people are the same.' What do you think we are going to talk about today?" Discuss until you reach the statement, "Some people are different." Have the children compile a list of how people are different. Again 40 or 50 differences will probably be listed very quickly. Common among these may be:

1. color of skin
2. hair texture
3. size
4. shape
5. taste in food
6. talents
7. customs
8. strength
9. ways to communicate
10. personalities, etc.

Follow up these lessons with this statement: "We have found out that all people are the same. Some people are different. What other statement can we make?" Help the children to develop "All people are different." This is a much more difficult statement to develop, and will require careful thought from the children, as well as helpful guidance from the teacher. The list will be narrowed down to include such items as:

1. finger prints
2. foot prints
3. size
4. looks
5. thoughts
6. memories
7. voice
8. possessions
9. problems
10. mind (intelligence)

Introductory Section: Upper Grade Unit

Ideal and Reality

Here and Now

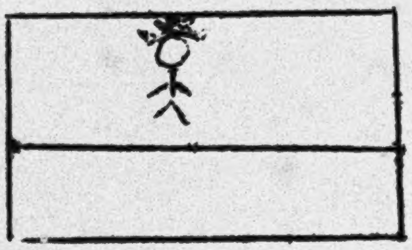
Ideal and Reality

Say: Sometimes people dream at night. Do you ever dream during the day? What do you call that kind of dream? (daydream) When you daydream, what kinds of things do you think about? Children will probably give such answers as the following:

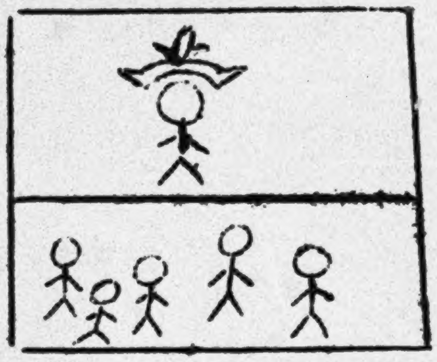
1. Being a millionaire.
2. Flying a glider plane.
3. Never having to go to school.
4. Being able to do what I please.

Carry on this discussion briefly. Then say: Is that how our lives really are? Maybe some of the things that we wish for can come true if we work hard and study hard. Some of our dreams may never come true. What do we call our world as it actually is? (Try to get the word reality.) What might we call our world as we would like it to be? (Children will probably say imagination. Accept this, but go on with the discussion that we have "ideas" about how we would like things to be, and a perfect world is ideal.)

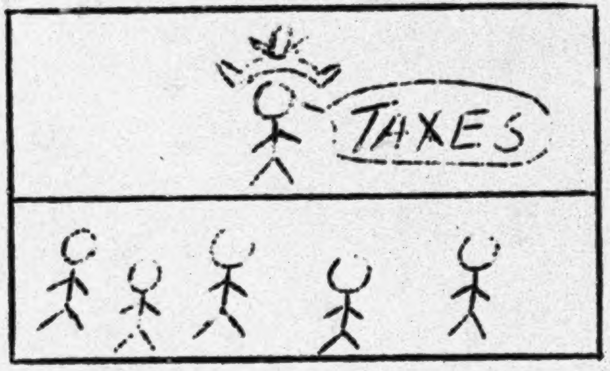
Draw the governing process diagram on the board. Say: We are going back in time to the period when the colonists first lived in America. (Draw a crown on the figure that represents the governing power.)



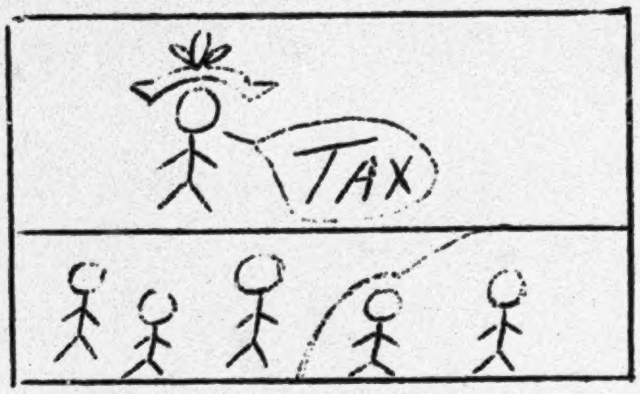
Who do you suppose this ruler is? (King George) (Add figures to represent the settlers.)



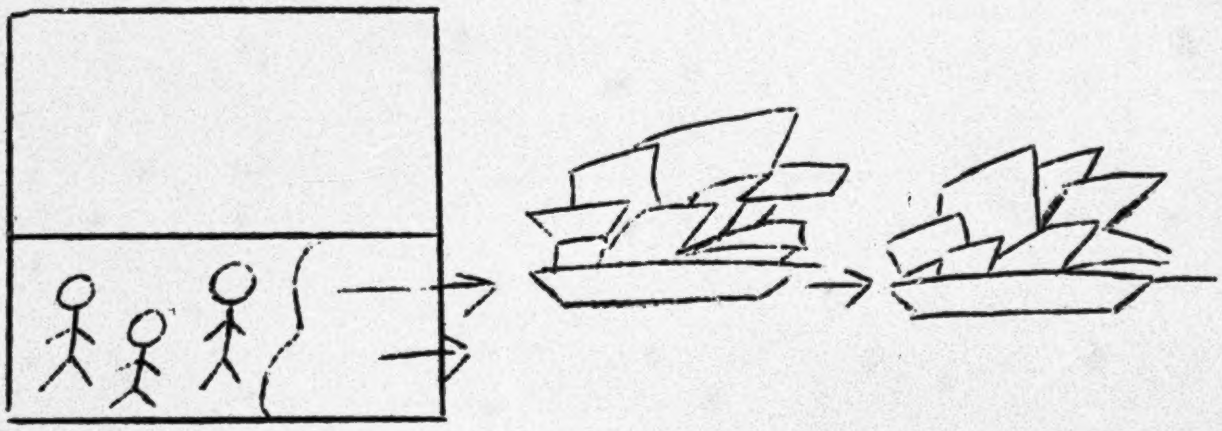
Many of these people were very much upset about one of King George's policies. You can sum up this policy in one word. What is it? (taxes)



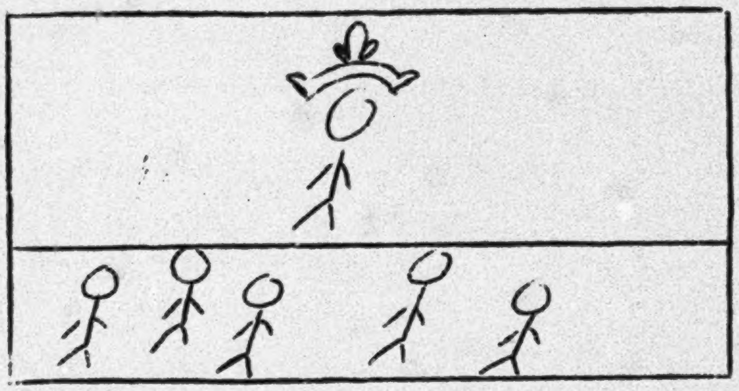
The colonists wanted to have a voice in changing policy. (Discuss how they felt; what they did to try to affect policy; how the Tories felt and why. Draw a line around some of the settlers to represent the Tories.)



Say: When the settlers learned that they could not affect policy, what did they do? (Overthrew the government, fought the Revolutionary War, etc.) What do you think the Tories did? (Some joined the Revolutionists; most fought on the side of England; some went to England.)

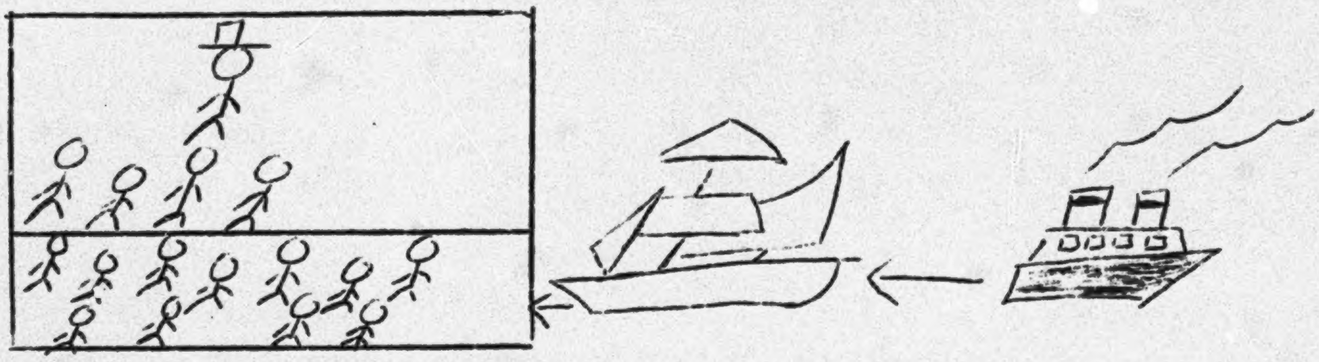


Say: Now who became the ruling power? (George Washington)



How did the people make sure they would have a part in shaping policy? (Representatives, Senators)

As the years went by, other presidents came into office, different people were elected as members of Congress, and more and more people came to the United States.



Who were these people? Why did they come?

Initiate a discussion among the children concerning their backgrounds. Have each child tell his last name. Ask the class what they notice about the names. If the children do not do so on their own, bring out from them the fact that names sometimes, but not always, indicate nationality. Then discuss the following:

1. What nationality do we all have in common?
2. Who are the true original Americans?
3. At the time that Columbus came, in what countries were our ancestors living? (List countries names on board. Beside each, write the number of children who stem from the countries listed.)
4. Can you tell a person's country of origin from his last name? Why can names sometimes fool you?
5. How many of you hear another language spoken in your home? What language is it? Can you say any words in that language? What are they?

6. Have words from other countries become a part of our own language? List some.
7. Can you think of some customs that have come to us from across our borders? What are they?

Say: How can we find out why people really did come here? Where can you get this information? (from the parents) When you try to get information, you are doing research. Tonight I want you to be researchers. Interview your parents and see if you can obtain some data for us. (explain meaning of data) Let's ask these questions:

(Pass out mimeographed sheets with the following questions listed.)

1. From what country did you or my grandparents or great-grandparents come?
2. What did they bring with them? (suggestions: furniture, jewelry, linens, books, musical instruments, food, etc.)
3. What customs did they bring that may still be a part of the way we live? (perhaps the boys get more freedom than the girls; maybe special meals are prepared for certain holidays; etc.)
4. What ideas in our family come from the background of my ancestors?
5. Is my religion the same as that of my grandparents? Why?
6. Are both my mother and father of the same nationality? If not, of what nationality am I?
7. Why did my ancestors come to the United States?

Next Session

Say: Today we are going to talk about the things we learned in our interviews. (In the discussion, bring out the fact that people emigrated because they were discontented with the "reality" of where they lived. Whether they came in search of a better economic status, or for political causes, or for various other reasons, they were hoping ideally for a better life.)

Say: Who were the only group of people that did not come for these reasons? (the Negroes) Why did they come? (They were brought here for economic reasons.) Discuss the Negro background: slavery, poverty, discrimination, lack of education, etc., bringing out the fact that Negroes are with good cause unhappy with "the reality."

Draw the governing process diagram on the board. Say: What do people do when they want to make the reality closer to the ideal? (try to affect policy) What policies have been developed to help Negroes and other groups attain a better life? (Civil Rights)

This discussion should be a facile springboard into an involvement with the "Here and Now." The following questions may be presented for the consideration of the children. Possibly you may be limited by time and will wish to use only those that are most appropriate for your particular group, or you may be able to use all of them. Use your own discretion. Only you and the response of your class can determine how much time should be invested in each section. Children may become more absorbed in one area than in another. Possibly one block of time may be devoted to each section.

A. The Family. (The objectives of this section are to explore the composition of families, their functions among various ethnic groups, and the ascribed roles of different members.) Such questions as the following should be presented and discussed:

1. Who are the members of the family?
2. Who in the family works?
3. How are families different?
4. What are the duties of the different members of the family? Who decides what these duties are? What happens if they dont' fulfill these roles? (What are the sanctions? How rigidly are the roles defined?)

B. Origins and "Cultural Baggage." Sensitize the students to the varying origins of today's city dwellers; to the reasons why people came from other countries or from other cities or rural areas to the city; and to the fact that people carry with them "cultural baggage" -- customs, traditions, tastes, habits, characteristic ways of perceiving, etc. All or any of the following may be presented for discussion:

1. Why do people come to cities?
2. Do people move in and out of cities? Why?
3. What is a ghetto?
4. What do the different ghettos contribute to the city?
5. Where did the various groups come from? (present the word ethnic)
6. What did they bring with them?
7. How have they changed since they've been here? Why have they changed? Will they and other groups continue to change? If so, how?
8. What languages are spoken in the city? Why do people speak different languages?

C. **Work.** Sensitize the students to cultural perceptions and influences on attitudes toward work and habits of work; value judgments about different kinds of work (status and prestige judgments); the varieties of work and work situations in a city; and how the city influences the world of work.

1. What kinds of work are there in the city? Are there ethnic causes that operate in this area? Why?
2. Why are there poor people in cities? How do they live?
3. How do people get different jobs?

D. **Ecology.** Sensitize students to ecologic segregation; variations in age, style, quality, cost, and desirability of housing; and the reasons for ethnic concentrations (the influence of external, internal, legal, psychological forces in producing ghettos).

1. Why do people move into particular areas of a city?
2. What different kinds of people live in your area?
3. What is a neighborhood?
4. Do all the people in a city live in the same way?
5. How do the churches differ in different neighborhoods?
6. What is the difference between a city and a suburb?
7. What is a ghetto? What is the difference between a ghetto and a slum (racial, ethnic, occupational, economic)?
8. Are all people in a ghetto alike?
9. Are different ethnic ghettos structurally alike?
10. Why do people live in ghettos?
11. Are people made to live in ghettos, or do they want to do so? Why, in each case?
12. How would people outside the ghetto feel if they were the ones that had to live there?
13. What is it like to live in a ghetto?
14. How do people in a ghetto feel?
15. How do people and children in the ghetto pick their friends?

E. **Housing.** Exploration of the various kinds of physical shelter in the city, the reasons for different types and conditions, ethnic variations in housing, the ownership patterns, the ways neighborhoods develop, etc.

1. Do all the people in a city live the same way?
2. Who owns the ghetto? (houses, stores, etc.)
3. How much do people pay for rent? Why? Do they always get what they pay for?
4. Who teaches in the schools?

F. **Recreation.** Exploration of the extent and characteristic use of leisure time; determination of any ethnic variations based on traditions (i.e. festivals, dances, games, etc.); and the factors that limit recreational opportunities and accessibility.

1. Where do city children play?
2. Are there different games, kinds of music, etc. in different parts of the city?
3. What about gangs? What are they? Who is in them? What are the differences between gangs, groups, teams, "the bunch," "the guys," "the fellas," etc.?

G. **Politics and Power.** Exploration of power relationships in the city, who hold power, how they maintain it, and how people act to change these relationships (voting, demonstrations, candidacies, coalitions, etc.).

1. Who owns cities?
2. Who runs them?
3. How are they run?
4. How do people in a city get things done or change them?
5. How do different neighborhoods get along in the city? Do they receive the same or different attention from city officials?

K-6 Project

1. From what country did you or your grandparents or great-grandparents come?

___

2. What did they bring with them? (suggestions: furniture, jewelry, books, food, etc.)

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3. What customs did they bring that may still be a part of the way we live? (perhaps the boys get more freedom than the girls; maybe special meals are prepared for certain holidays; etc.)

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4. What ideas in your family come from the background of your ancestors?

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5. Is your religion the same as that of your grandparents? Why?

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6. Are both your mother and father of the same nationality? If not, of what nationality are you?

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7. Why did your ancestors come to the United States?

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SUBUNIT ON THE AMERICAN INDIANS

Teacher Guide to American Indian Subunit
The Zuñi Indians
The Kwakiutl Indians
The Iroquois Indians
The Dakota Indians

Upper Grade Unit

Teachers Guide to the American Indians Subunit

Teachers Guide to American Indians Section

Description: In the following section, there are four articles about American Indian tribes written for children. The four tribes are the Zuñi, the Kwakiutl, the Iroquois, and the Dakota. For the most part, the material about the tribes has been obtained from anthropological sources. Ordinarily, information about family structure, values, child-rearing, status, and political organization, while vital to the understanding of a culture, is not readily available in most books and resources for children.

Purpose: The purpose of this section is to have the children discover that all American Indian tribes were not alike. There were some similarities, of course, but the differences in the cultures of the tribes should be emphasized. Students of American history should be interested to see that diversity existed in this country even before Columbus opened up the hemisphere to European immigration. The American Indian tribes were different from one another. It is hoped that the singular, stereotyped picture of THE American Indian, so often reinforced by television and motion pictures, will be erased.

Activities: While each teacher can approach this section and use the material provided in different ways, some activities for classroom use are included in the following list.

Activities (cont.)

1. Before the pupils begin their reading, draw out from them their particular stereotypes of the American Indian. This can be done through discussions, through descriptive word lists, or through drawing pictures of a "typical" American Indian. Keep this material until the end of the study so that the pupils can see whether their stereotypes are true.

2. On a map of the United States, locate the sections of the country where the four tribes lived. Have the pupils venture some guesses as to how these different geographical environments might have affected the tribes living there.

3. Have the children read about each tribe. This can be done in groups, with partners, or individually. Use the questions at the end of each section as a basis for discussion. Finally, have the students fill in the chart at the end of the section. The chart should further clarify the basic cultural differences of the tribes. Note some of the similarities, too, especially in religious practices.

4. Ask students to list the characteristics or some of the customs of a tribe. Then ask them to make a second, parallel list of these customs as they exist in our society. Compare and discuss.

Activities (cont.)

5. Students can select another Indian tribe which interests them and do further reading and research about that tribe. Compare this tribe with any of the four described in this section.

6. Using the trilogy (some people are alike, some people are different, all people are different), examine each tribe. Then using the same framework, compare the tribes with each other.

7. Have the students diagram the governing process (ruler, ruled, policy) as it was described in each tribe. The Zuñi and the Iroquois are especially interesting and should provide sharp contrasts.

8. Have the students engage in some role playing. Ask small groups to prepare a skit depicting some aspect of one of the Indian cultures. The rest of the class can guess which tribe is being dramatized. Discuss the event which was acted out and why it was important to the tribe.

9. Ask the students to find pictures which show differences in everyday utensils of Indian life -- homes, dress, shoes, arrowheads, etc. These can be found in most children's books about Indians and should further emphasize the difference among the tribes.

Upper Grade Unit

The Zuñi Indians

The Zuñi Indians

The Indian tribes of the Southwest lived in villages which the Spanish explorers called "pueblos." The Indians became known as the Pueblo Indians. There were several different tribes in this group.

The largest pueblo was in the northwestern corner of what is now the state of New Mexico. It was the village of Zuñi. There were almost 2,000 Zuñi Indians living there in houses made out of adobe, or sun-dried brick. Some of the Zuñi did not live in the village. They spent most of the year away from the pueblo in farming villages. They returned to the pueblo to celebrate religious ceremonies at different times during the year.

There was not much water in this area except for some mountain springs and the Zuñi River. The river was almost dry during most of the year. Despite the lack of water, the Zuñi were able to grow enough food to live without famine.

Most of the Zuñi were farmers. They grew maize, beans, and squash. They irrigated the land by bringing water from the mountain springs by hand.

All of the men of the family worked together in the fields and brought the food to one storeroom for all family relatives to share.

The Zuñi believed that the best way to live was to work together and to share things with others. Not only did they labor together in the fields and share their food, but the Zuñi helped each other in many other ways, too. They built new houses together. The women ground the corn together. All members of the family shared in bringing up the children. If a man had wealth, he shared it with others.

According to the Zuñi, a man who thought only about himself was not a good man. In fact, no individual person should stand out from the group too much. A person who seemed to be a strong leader was often accused of being a witch. In foot racing, a contest in which two men kicked a stick for twenty-five miles, a man who won too often was not allowed to run any more.

The foot race was really a religious ceremony. It was done to bring a blessing upon the whole community. The Zuñi religion also showed some other ways in which being one of the group was very important. Most of the religious ceremonies were performed in a group. There were very few private prayers. The many dances, songs and ceremonies were performed together for the common good. Most of the prayers asked for rain.

The Zuñi were very strict about performing their prayers in just the right way at the right time. They thought that if prayers were said in the wrong way -- if even one word was forgotten or left out -- the prayer would not be answered. If there was a mistake there might not be any rain or good crops might not grow. Everyone would then suffer.

The Zuñi priests ruled over the people in everything to do with religion. These priests were men who knew the religious prayers and ceremonies perfectly. The priests appointed another group of men to rule over everything not having to do with religion. These men did not have much power to make the people do what they said. But most of their decisions were obeyed because the Zuñi did not like to argue. Most of the problems brought before this group had to do with the settlement of questions about who inherited property after a man died. Murder, fighting and stealing seldom happened. The Zuñi rarely did anything which was not thought to be right for fear of being shamed by the whole community.

Zuni were brought up from the time that they were very young children to do what the community thought was right. But Zuñi parents were not strict with their children. A Zuñi child was hardly ever spanked or scolded by his parents. Instead, the child was made to feel ashamed if he did something not considered right. A Zuñi child was praised by being told that he acted like an adult.

Zuñi boys were allowed a great deal of freedom. Boys were free to roam and play until they were about nine years old. At nine the boy began to work with his father or other male relatives.

Zuñi girls did not have as much freedom. While she was allowed to play with other little girls for a short time during her childhood, the Zuñi girl began early to learn household skills. She spent most of her time at home with her mother.

While girls seldom joined the sacred religious societies, all Zuñi boys were initiated into the Katcina society twice. The first time was between the ages of five and nine and the second time was at age fourteen. During the ceremony the Katcina dancers performed. They were really men of the society, but the Zũni boys were told at the first ceremony that they were gods. At the second ceremony when the boy was fourteen he was told that they were not real gods. The boys were forbidden to tell this secret under threat of death. It was after this second ceremony that a boy could then become a member of one of the six religious societies for men.

When young Zũni boys and girls came to the age of marriage they followed a simple ritual. The young man asked the girl if he could visit her house. If she was interested in him she took him to her home where he was given some food. He then stayed at the girl's parents' house for five days. During that time he worked for her parents. On the sixth morning he went home but soon returned with a present of a wedding dress for the girl which his mother had sent her. The bride and groom then returned to his house with a present of ground flour. They all ate together and then the couple returned to the bride's house to live with her family. The groom began working in the fields of his wife's family.

Zũni men took only one wife. However, if the couple quarreled often they got divorced. This was done if the husband simply returned to his mother's house to live. If a man's wife was unhappy with him, she simply put his clothes and other possessions outside the door of their house. This was a signal for him to return to his mother's household.

Because the Zuñi disliked arguing, most married couples lived together happily for many years. Yet if a couple could not live together peacefully, divorce was allowed. It was considered better to be divorced than to live together in a way which was not the Zuñi way.

The Zuñi Indians

1. What were the Zuñi houses like?

2. What kind of work did most Zuñi do?

3. What things in life did the Zuñi consider most important?

4. Describe the Zuñi religion.

5. Who ruled the Zuñi?

6. How were Zuñi children brought up?

7. How did Zuñi go about getting married? Divorced?

Upper Grade Unit

The Kwakiutl Indians

The Kwakiutl Indians

Along the wooded shores of the northwestern United States and Canada lived many different Indian tribes. Among these tribes were the Kwakiutl Indians of Vancouver Island. They lived along the coast in villages of long, one-story dwellings. These houses were made of planks of red cedar cut from nearby forests. The wood for their canoes, totem poles, and carved boxes also came from the forests.

Other than doing some hunting and berry picking, the Kwakiutl did not depend on the land for their food. Most of their food came from the sea. There were many kinds of fish that were easily caught -- salmon, halibut, cod, and candlefish. The sea was filled with fish, and there was plenty of food for all.

The Kwakiutl were made up of a number of related tribes. Within each tribe there were several large family groups called numaym. Each numaym was headed by a chief, but being a chief was mainly a title of honor. These chiefs did not have much power in ruling over their people. In fact, the Kwakiutl had no person or group who made laws for the tribe to follow. It was up to each numaym to decide what was right or wrong.

High rank and noble titles were important to the Kwakiutl. Some numaym were thought to be more important than others. Even within the numaym, each person had a certain rank. One was either a noble or a commoner. The chiefs spent most of their time competing with each other to see who could collect the highest number of noble titles for themselves and their families.

They did this in two ways. One way was to give a rival chief more property than he could give back. The other way was to destroy more property than the rival chief could destroy in return. These competitions were called potlatches. The word potlatch came from a Nootka Indian word which meant "giving."

In a typical potlatch, a chief would begin giving another chief presents. The second chief had to accept these gifts and return twice the number at the end of the year. If he could not do this, he was shamed and he lost importance in everybody's eyes.

The gifts given at potlatches were mainly blankets woven from birch bark. Because such large numbers of blankets were exchanged during potlatches, the chiefs sometimes used large copper shields to stand for a certain number of blankets. A copper could represent thousands of blankets. A chief might challenge his rival to buy some of his coppers. The rival had to accept the challenge or be shamed.

Another kind of potlatch was one in which the chief destroyed his property. It began when a chief invited a rival to be his guest. There would be a feast at which gallons and gallons of candlefish oil were poured on a fire. The guests also drank some of the oil. As the oil made the flames blaze higher, the chief giving the feast had to pretend that he did not care if his whole house and all his possessions burned. Blankets and canoes were set ablaze, and often coppers were broken or thrown into the fire to show how wealthy the chief was. The rival chief who was the guest then had to make plans to give a bigger feast in return -- one at which just as much property would be destroyed.

The members of the numaym gave the chief much of the property he used in these competitions. Sometimes the numaym thought their chief was going too far and having too many competitions. They might then refuse to support the chief.

The strong wish for high rank which was so important to the Kwakiutl could be seen in their religion as well. Most of the religious ceremonies took place in groups, but the rank of the individual was emphasized. For example, religious dances were owned by individual persons, and only they had the right to perform them. The right to do certain dances, along with special titles and noble names, was inherited by the first-born child in a family. The purpose of the religious dances was to make contact with the guardian spirits and to obtain power from them.

Marriage was another way in which a Kwakiutl man could get important titles and privileges. Every bride wanted to have many of these special titles, family crests, and religious dances to bring to the marriage so that her children could inherit them.

The arrangements for a marriage were made in a way much like the selling of a copper. The young man would come to see the father of the young woman, bringing with him coppers and blankets. The father of the young woman would tell him about the many special possessions she had, such as titles and dances. The young man would then bid for them with his coppers and blankets. If the marriage was successfully arranged, the father of the bride had to repay the young husband by giving titles and property to the first-born child. When the debt had been repaid in this way, the wife could choose to stay with her husband or to return to her father's house.

A Kwakiutl child began learning to take part in competitions at a very early age. When a baby was a year old, his father would give some small gifts to the tribe, and the baby would receive his first name. His second name was given to him when he was a few years older. Again, his father would give out some gifts. When a boy was about ten years old, members of his family would lend him some blankets. He would then give them out to friends, who had to repay him double by the end of the month. Soon a boy would become an adult by giving his own small potlatch. At this time, he would be given his own potlatch name. The next step was to buy a copper so that he could start offering it for sale to a rival.

If a girl was the first-born child in a noble family, she had all the rights of a man. Potlatches were given whenever she received a new name. When she grew into a young woman, a big potlatch was given at which she received all the names and titles from her mother's family. She would stop giving potlatches as soon as her first-born child was old enough to give potlatches on his own.

The Kwakiutl Indians

1. What were Kwakiutl houses like?

2. How did the Kwakiutl get their food?

3. What was a numaym?

4. Which was more important to the Kwakiutl, blankets or titles?

5. How did a Kwakiutl man go about getting married?

6. How did a young child learn how to take part in Kwakiutl society?

7. Who ruled the Kwakiutl?

8. What part of the Kwakiutl religion was most important to them?

Upper Grade Unit

The Iroquois Indians

The Iroquois

The Iroquois Indians used drawn or carved figures to tell the stories of their history. According to their own recorded lengend, the Iroquois came from the southwestern part of the United States to settle in the regions where the states of Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York now exist. The legend says that the Iroquois came into these regions as a single, unified tribe. Fighting and quarreling began, however, and the tribe split into five separate tribes, each building its own village. The five tribes were the Seneca, the Cayuga, the Onondaga, the Oneida, and the Mohawk. The legend goes on to say that a god appeared to the tribes and told them to make peace and form a unified group or league. This was done, and the Iroquois nation became a strong force, well able to protect itself from its enemies, especially the Algonkian. The early English settlers called the League of the Iroquois the Five Nations.

Even though the five tribes were different in some ways, they were known as the Iroquois because they all spoke the same basic Iroquois language and because many of their customs and traditions were the same.

The Iroquois believed that working with each other was very important. Not only did they co-operate with each other in the League and in times of war and danger, but each tribe also had many everyday activities which made it necessary to work together.

First of all, the Iroquois were farmers. They planted many varieties of corn, beans, and squash. In order to clear the land of trees, the men and women had to work together. The women did the planting and harvesting of the crops in work groups. These work groups were run by an older, respected woman of the tribe. Other women served as her assistants and assigned the work to the rest of the women. These work groups ran very smoothly. Since many of the women were related to one another, they usually enjoyed each other's company. It was a social occasion for them.

The men spent most of their time hunting, trapping, and fishing. They, too, did most of their work in groups. In times of war when men were members of a war party, they helped one another. Each had a special job. For instance, some of the men hunted and prepared the meat which the war party used for food.

The Iroquois lived in villages surrounded by strong wooden fences. Their houses were quite large. Many families who were related to one another shared these houses. They were built of sapling poles covered with elm bark and were called longhouses. There was a row of fires down the center of the longhouse, with a smoke hole over each fire. Two rooms, one on either side of each fire, housed a single family.

The houses, fields, and crops in each family belonged to the women. It was the older, respected women of the larger family groups or clans who helped to choose the chiefs of the tribe. The chiefs were members of the tribal council, the group which ruled the tribe. The tribal council did not force the people to obey them. Rather, those who did not obey were punished by being shamed and disliked by the other people of the tribe.

The chiefs of the tribal council also represented the tribe in the Grand Council of the League. Every summer, the Grand Council met at Onondaga (now central New York state). The five tribes were represented by fifty chiefs. They talked about declarations of war, of peace, about arguments among the tribes, especially disagreements over boundaries of land. When an important matter had been thoroughly discussed in the Grand Council, the chiefs of each tribe withdrew to discuss the problem. They would reach a decision and return to the Grand Council meeting. All of the tribes had to agree. If even one tribe had a different opinion from all the others, all five tribes again had to withdraw for more discussion. This went on until all five tribes agreed.

The Iroquois divided the year into three parts according to their farming and hunting activities. The first season went from spring planting until autumn harvesting. The second season began after the harvest season. This was the trapping and hunting season, which lasted until the end of February. The third part of the Iroquois year was from the end of February until spring planting began. There was a religious festival at the end of each season, but of the three, the February Dream Festival was the most important.

In the Iroquois religion, there were many spirits. There was a belief that a constant struggle between good and evil spirits went on all the time. There was a type of spirit called orenda. Orenda was found in all things and was what connected everything in the world together. Man could experience the power of orenda through his dreams. This was why the Dream Festival was so important to the tribes, for it was during the festival that the Iroquois had a chance to tell others about their dreams.

During the time of the Dream Festival there were other activities as well. There were games and dances and ceremonies in which the older, important women of a clan would give special names to adult members of the clan who had earned them.

These older, honored women had other responsibilities as well. They arranged most of the marriages. There was not too much ceremony in an Iroquois marriage, just an exchange of some small gifts of food. After the marriage, the couple lived in the house of the bride's mother. If the couple did not live together happily, they were divorced by a simple process of the return of the man to his mother's house.

Iroquois children were brought up to take part in all of the activities of their family, clan, and tribe. From a very early age they went with their mothers to the fields and attended most of the religious and political ceremonies with both parents. The children were expected to be loyal to their families. Their parents never spanked Iroquois children. They were disciplined by having water thrown on them.

Boys and girls were brought up differently. At age eight, boys were allowed to have more freedom from their mothers. They were permitted to play war and hunting games. It was hoped that a boy would be good at these games, for Iroquois men who were skilled at war and at hunting were greatly admired. It was important for a man to sing well, to speak effectively, and to take part in politics. The boys were to grow into men who would be loyal to family and tribe and the League as well.

The girls stayed with their mothers, learning the household crafts and working with them in the fields. It was hoped that each girl would grow up to be a hard-working housewife, for most of her duties would be with her family and clan. Women were not encouraged to have interests beyond their own villages, even though some of them would take part in the choosing of the tribal chiefs.

The Iroquois

1. What was the Iroquois League?

2. How did the Iroquois get their food?

3. What were the most important things in life to the Iroquois?

4. Describe longhouses.

5. What was orenda?

6. How did an Iroquois get married? Divorced?

7. How were Iroquois children raised?

Upper Grade Unit

The Dakota Indians

The Dakota

The Great Plains of the United States are between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains. This vast, treeless plain is covered with grass growing from a rich soil. The Indians who lived in this part of the continent were called the Plains Indians. It is thought that these tribes came to the Great Plains from the South and from the woodlands of the east coast. They were originally a farming people, but as they moved into the Plains and saw the many herds of buffalo, elk and antelope, the Indians soon began hunting for their food. They left their permanent villages and became wanderers who followed the animal herds.

Originally the Plains Indians used large dogs that looked almost like wolves to help them pull their supplies on A-shaped frames. Some time during the 1600's, horses, which had originally been brought to this country a century before by the Spanish explorers, escaped and began roaming onto the Plains from the Southwest. This made very important changes in the lives of the Plains Indians. It meant they could travel longer distances to hunt buffalo. It also meant they could travel faster. By 1750 most of the Plains tribes were mounted horsemen. More and more Indians were able to move into the Plains and the number of Plains Indians increased about three times to 150,000.

When the tribes came into the Plains regions they were different from each other in many ways. However, after living on the Plains, most of the tribes adopted and used many of the same things needed for living. Clothing, food, tents (tepees) and tools were quite similar in most tribes.

One of the largest Plains tribes was the Dakota. They were made up of seven small tribes and they all spoke the same dialect of the Sioux language. Each of the seven tribes ruled itself, but they thought of themselves as one people and did not make war with one another. The name Dakota means "Friends" in the Sioux language.

Like many other Plains Indians the Dakota got their food, shelter and clothing from the buffalo. They did no farming. The buffalo hunt was a very important event to the Dakota. They were well organized so they would be able to catch as many buffalo as possible. There were special scouts who found the buffalo herds and reported back to the tribe. The men of the tribe had to wait until plans were worked out about the best way to attack the herd before the hunt could begin. Special police guards were sent to protect the herd. No one was allowed to attack until the signal was given. When the signal was finally given, it was each man for himself. Whoever killed a buffalo could keep it for his own use.

It was the job of the Dakota women to take the meat of the buffalo to be dried and preserved for food for the family during the times when buffalo were scarce. The women also made the skins of the buffalo into clothing and tepee covers.

The Dakota, like most of the Plains tribes, were tepee dwellers. A typical tepee was made from smooth poles arranged in a circle and joined together at at the top. This frame was covered with buffalo hides. It usually took ten to twelve hides to cover the frame. The tepee could be put up and taken down easily. They could be carried as the tribe moved from place to place.

The camp grounds of the tribe were called encampments. In the encampments, the tepees were usually arranged in a circle or a half circle. Each encampment had its important tepees located near the center of the circle. The chief and the tribal council had their tepees there.

A Dakota chief was usually a respected warrior. His main duties were to judge those who were accused of doing wrong and to choose the places where the encampments would be. His council was made up of older, experienced men of the tribe. They helped the chief make decisions. Special police guards enforced the orders of the chief and his council. They were especially strict with those who did things which would put the encampment in danger. The police guards sometimes used death as a punishment.

Even though the Dakota traveled as a group, each family took care of its own needs. The family and all of its relatives were very important to the Dakota. Relatives helped each other a great deal. For instance, it was the custom for a young man to pay for his bride with horses. If a young man did not have enough horses, his relatives would give him some. The relatives also gave a newly married couple their tepee and everything to furnish it. When children were born to the couple, relatives gave the babies all of their clothes.

Dakota children were given a great deal of love and attention. However, kissing a child in public was never done. The children were rarely punished and were never spanked. The Dakota did not allow their babies to cry. If a baby began to cry, he was immediately picked up and soothed. The Dakota did not want crying to disturb their neighbors.

Dakota boys and girls were taught the jobs they were to do as adults by their parents. Girls were taught the work of the tepee by their mothers. Boys, who were expected to be warriors and hunters, began riding with their fathers at a very early age.

The adults as well as the children loved sports and games. Storytelling, dice playing, lacrosse, foot racing and horse racing were among the favorite pastimes.

To the Dakota Indians war was a kind of a game with definite rules and points to be gained. The purpose of starting or joining a war party was for personal glory. A man was admired for risking his life. Sometimes war parties raided enemy encampments for scalps. Other war parties would go out to steal horses. The size of a war party could vary from small groups of two to six men to large parties of hundreds of men. Before an attack the men would paint themselves with the marks they were entitled to wear. Each mark stood for a brave deed. Another way of counting brave deeds was with coup sticks. For each brave deed a warrior would have a coup stick, a small pole decorated with feathers.

Another way in which a man could get honor was through religion. One of the most important ideas of the Dakota religion was that each person should contact spirits in a vision or a dream. This was done through fasting, prayer and even self-torture. If a Dakota saw his special spirit he would get power from it.

The Dakota also had a ceremony in which whole encampments would try to contact their spirits together. This was a four-day ceremony called the Sun Dance. In this ceremony, the worshipers looked steadily into the sun while dancing.

The way of life of the Plains Indians lasted only a hundred years, for by the 1830's the white man began coming into the Great Plains. The diseases of the white man, especially smallpox, killed many Indians. The white men hunted and killed large numbers of buffalo and wiped out the Indians' food supply. The Indians couldn't understand why the white man should trespass on their land. The Indians raided the intruders' camps and armies were brought in to fight back. There were treaties made with the Indians, but the white man broke many of them. For example, gold was found in the Black Hills and the white men went after it, thus breaking a treaty with the Dakota Sioux. There was more fighting until one by one each of the Plains tribes was defeated.

The Dakota

1. How did the Dakota get their food?

2. Describe a tepee.

3. Who ruled the Dakota?

4. What were the most important things in life to the Dakota?

5. How were Dakota children raised?

6. Why were dreams important to the Dakota?

7. How did a young man in a Dakota tribe go about getting married?

SUBUNIT ON THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

SECTION I:

The Causes that Led to the Colonists' Desire for Independence

The decision of the colonists to break away from England was not an impetuous one. Our founding fathers' drastic move came after the initiation of a series of unjust laws by the English governing powers. After many attempts to affect these policies, the colonists took upon themselves the one action that changed the course of a nation.

By citing the causes of the revolution and analyzing them, using our structure for the governing process, children will see for themselves that for a time the colonists' methods to affect policy were somewhat successful. The change in the British attitude and Britain's failure to change any subsequently unjust laws will be shown to be inciting factors that led to the decision for independence.

I. Early Colonial America

A. Teacher should begin a class discussion by recalling the early colonial settlements in America. Have the children think particularly of the Jamestown colony and its House of Burgesses. See if the children can work out among themselves, in groups or individually, a diagram of the governing process here in Virginia. (Review first our ideas of ruler, ruled,and policy.)

1. In a few minutes, call on one child from each group to put his diagram on the board. Discuss these diagrams and then bring out a chart which has the correct diagram on it. Compare and contrast this with the others. Let the children point out any mistakes they might have made.

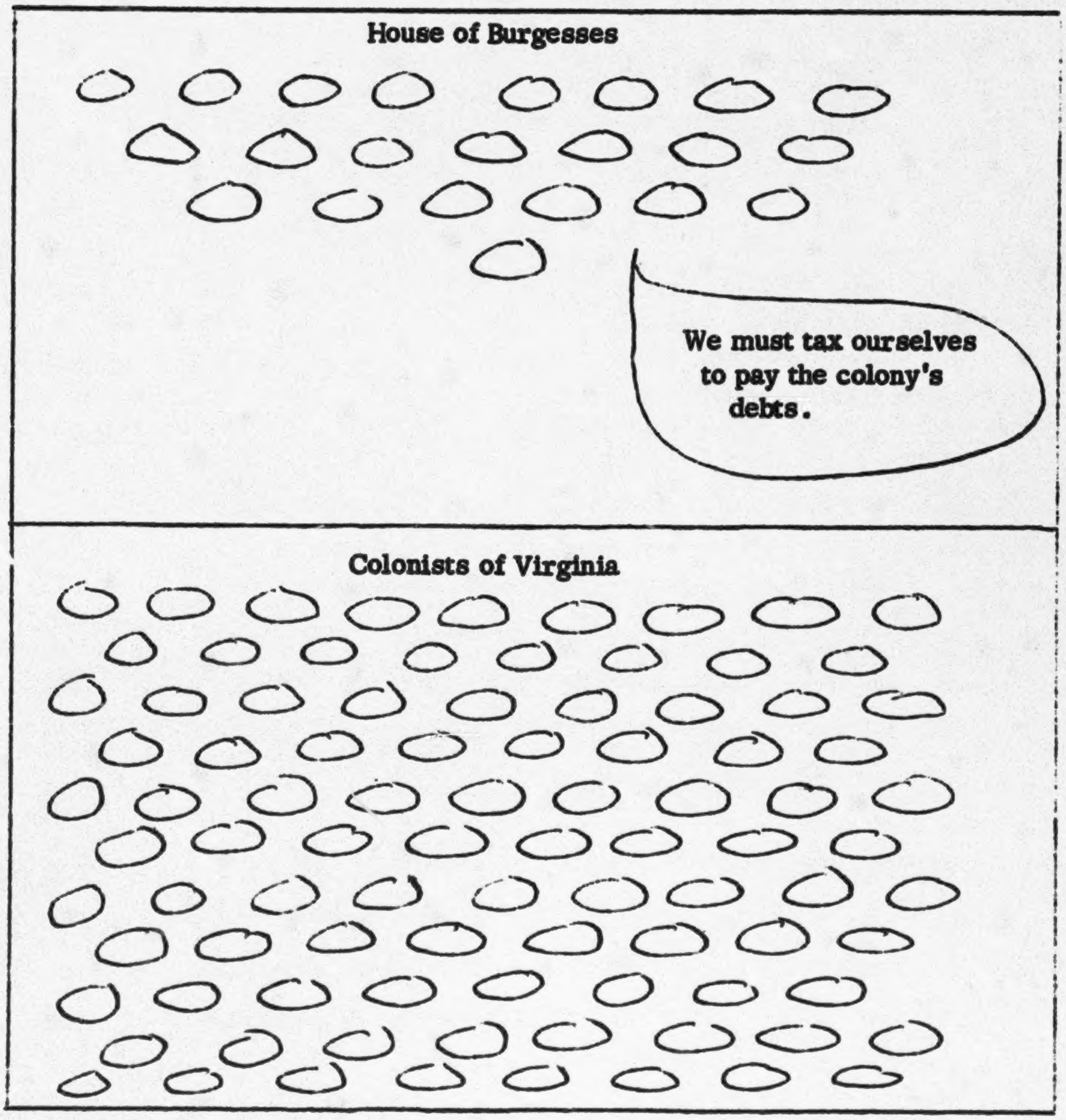
   (Correct diagram is on the next page.)

2. Have the children think back to when the Pilgrims came to America.

   a. While they were still on ship who was the ruler? (In discussion lead students to understand that once the Pilgrims were in the New World, there would be no specific laws to govern them.)

   b. What did the Pilgrims do without any government? (The idea to be brought out here is that the Pilgrims themselves drew up the Mayflower Compact to act as the foundation of laws to govern them until they could set up their own government.)

B. Teacher should now ask the children, in both these cases, Where did the rulers come from? Who were the governed and what might their policy have been?


House of Burgesses
We must tax ourselves to pay the colony's debts.
Colonists of Virginia

(In discussion the children should be led to see that in early colonial days the colonists were governed by their fellow colonists, and they made policy to protect themselves, the colonists.)

C. Take out large pictures or slides of the House of Burgesses, a town meeting, typical scene in the Jamestown colony, and a plantation scene.

1. In groups, individually or as a class, compile a list of all the different people that are in these pictures.
2. After the children have been given ample time, call for answers and place them in a list on the board. The list should include women, men, children, young adults, Negroes, and Indians.
3. Teacher should ask the children again, Where did the early colonists get their rulers? (From among the colonists.)
    a. Children should pick out the pictures that show rulers of the colonies. (The one of the House of Burgesses and the town assembly.)
    b. From looking at these and our list of different groups in the colony, let the children pick out the ones that are found in ruling positions in the pictures. (Men only, white and adult.)
    c. Next the teacher should refer back to our idea of all men being the same and all men being different.

(i) Have the children now compare each of the remaining groups of people and tell what is different about them from the men in ruling positions. Compile the answers next to each group.

ex. women - not the same sex.

Indians - not the same color or nationality.

children - not old enough, etc.

(ii) Ask the children now if all the people in the colonies were the same. No. Did they all have the same chance to become leaders? No. In this way, were all the people of the colony equal? No.

II. King George Comes to the Throne in England in 1760

A. Tape on the days before the Revolution is now used to show the policy that England made and how the colonies reacted to it. (Copy of the dialogue of the tape follows at the end of this section.)

1. Play the first part of the tape. Have the children be listening for the ruler, who is being governed, and what each policy is. After it is played, make two columns on the board. Tell the children there are two policies mentioned here. What are the names of them? Place the name of each policy at the top. List under this the ruler in each case. The policy and the people governed also should be listed. It would look like this:

NAVIGATION ACTS	STAMP ACT
1. King George - governs.	1. Prime Minister Grenville - governs.
2. Colonists are governed.	2. Colonists are governed.
3. Policy - colonies can trade only with England on English ships.	3. Policy - pay fee on all legal documents.

Play back the tape to substantiate what has been written.

Fill in what was not grasped on the first playing.

Children could also read about these acts from a text.

2. Next session, make a diagram of the governing process using ready-made pictures for each of the above acts.
    a. Place the pictures so all can see them. Call on children to name the ruler, the ruled, and the policy for each act. Place the correct picture in its proper position on the board.
    b. Teacher now brings out the diagram of the early colonial governing process in Jamestown. In class discussion, compare the diagram here with the ones of the above acts. In each case, who was the governing power, who were the governed, and what might the policy be? The teacher should lead the children to see that the earlier colonists ruled over themselves and made laws or initiated policy to protect themselves. Here the rulers are the English. The colonists were still governed, and the policy was made to help those in England.

c. As an introduction to the next activity, ask the children who they think was affected by the Stamp Act or who had to use the stamp. Compile the list on the board and include such groups as lawyers, judges, politicians, newspapermen, mail officials, etc.

   (i) Ask the children how they would think each of these groups would react to this policy?

   (ii) Now have a role-play activity from the ideas gathered. Let groups of children choose one group from the list and act out what their reaction to the Stamp Act might have been.

3. Now we'll see how policy was actually affected by the colonists. Teacher now plays the next section of the tape and asks the children to be listening for how the colonists tried to affect or change these policies made by England. Make a list on the board of the things that they did to try to change each act.

   a. Navigation Acts

      (i) Sons of Liberty formed and pledged not to buy goods from England.

      (ii) Mobs rioted to protest these laws.

   b. Stamp Act

      (i) House of Burgesses said only colonial governments had the right to place taxes on the colonists.

(ii) Stamp Act Congress made a declaration of rights and grievances to send to England that said the colonists could not be taxed by England.

c. Teacher asks: Had the colonists affected the policy at all? (Yes, because the Stamp Act was repealed.)

4. Listen to the final section of the tape. Again remind the children to be thinking of this in terms of diagramming the governing process.

a. When the tape is over, teacher should ask the children:

(i) Name of the policy -- Townshend Acts of 1767

(ii) Ruler - Chancellor Townshend

(iii) Ruled - colonists

(iv) Policy - pay a tax on things coming into the colonies from England such as tea, paper, and glass.

(v) Teacher now asks, How did the colonists try to affect this policy?

a) Massachusetts sent out letters saying colonies should protest.

b) Colonists also refused to import these goods from England.

(vi) Teacher asks if this affected policy. (Yes, because these acts were repealed except for the tax on tea.)

(Record the above information on the board.)

5. As review, the teacher now transfers what has been discussed about the Townshend Acts into a diagram on the overhead projector. Ask the children to place the ruler, ruled, and policy in the proper places on the diagram.

6. Pass out a mimeo copy of the chart on the next page. The teacher should have a large chart like that of the children so that the children will be sure to follow the proper procedure. As a class project, the teacher first explains the chart and then,together, the children fill in the information for each category. The chart on the next page has the necessary information on it.

B. Teacher now passes out the diary of Samuel Grey, a typical colonist who was writing during these days prior to the revolution.

NAME OF POLICY IF ANY	************** 1606	NAVIGATION ACTS 1660	STAMP ACT 1765	TOWNSHEND ACTS 1767
RULER	House of Burgesses	King George	Prime Minister Grenville	Chancellor Townshend
RULED	Colonists	Colonists	Colonists	Colonists
POLICY	(One example) We need to tax ourselves to pay our debts.	Colonies can trade only with England on English ships.	Pay fee for a stamp on all legal documents.	Colonies will pay a tax on tea, paper and glass that come from England.
AFFECTING POLICY		Colonists formed the Sons of Liberty who would not buy goods from England. People rioted.	People rioted. House of Burgesses said only colonial government had the right to tax themselves. Stamp Act Congress sent a letter to England saying they could not be taxed.	Mass. sent out letters saying colonies should protest. Merchants refused to import goods from England.
CHANGE			Stamp Act was repealed.	Townshend Acts repealed except for tax on tea.

(Explain to the children that this is not a real diary but is what probably would have been found in the diary of a colonist at this time.) The diary brings out the remainder of the policy to be discussed.

1. Read the diary together. Have the children enter any new words on the vocabulary page in their notebooks. Have them get the meaning from the content where possible.
2. After the diary has been read through, pass out the chart to accompany this lesson. Go through each entry and fill in the title of any policy mentioned, the ruler, the ruled, and what the policy was and any way that the colonists tried to affect that policy. Place the material on the chart in the proper section.
    a. Chart filled out with the proper information to be compiled by the children accompanies the lesson. It is found on the next page.
    b. A large chart should be used by the teacher so the children will be sure to follow the procedure.

C. Children should now lay both of these charts out on their desks. The earlier one being placed down first.

1. Let the children compare the policy made in the period studied with the ruler at each time. The teacher should lead the children to see that in the beginning the colonists governed themselves.

NAME OF POLICY IF ANY	NAVIGATION ACTS 1773	INTOLERABLE ACTS 1773	******* * April, 1775	******** Dec, 1775	DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE 1776
RULER	King George	Lord North Prime Minister of England.	General Gage	Continental Congress	Continental Congress
RULED	Colonists	Colonists	Colonists	Colonists	Colonists
POLICY	You must buy tea from England	Port of Boston closed. No town meetings. British governors rule. Soldiers are back in colony.	Arrest Sam Adams and John Hancock.	We shall make our own currency. We shall open our ports to foreign nations.	We will write our declaration of independence.
AFFECTING POLICY	Colonists had Boston Tea Party and dumped tea into the harbor.	First Continental Congress sent declaration of rights to England.	Minutemen met soldiers. Second Continental Congress sent petition to England.	England forbade her merchants to trade with us and began seizing our ships.	Began war.
CHANGE	England passed more laws.	None	None	Colonists wrote Declaration of Independence.	

Comparing the policy, you can see that when the colonists ruled, the policy was for their own welfare. When England ruled, policy was to benefit the English. Toward the end of the period, policy benefited the colonists because they were once again governing themselves.

2. All should now look at the section affecting policy and change under English rule. Let the children run their fingers along the line of affecting policy and change. (Children should be led to see here that in the beginning the colonists did affect policy, but as the period went on, England either refused to change it at all or passed more laws instead.)

3. As a culminating activity, a game may be made using the charts. Have each group in the class pick out one policy. Act it out, but do not give the name of it or the name of the ruler. Children must guess the ruler, and the name of the policy if there is one and what time of the period it was: in the beginning when the colonists ruled, in the middle when England ruled, or in the end when the colonists ruled again.

DIARY OF COLONIST SAMUEL GREY OF BOSTON FROM 1773 - 1776

December 17, 1773

I knew all the colonists would do something when King George tried to force us to take that shipment of tea. Last night fifty men of the colony dressed as Indians and went to the ship in the harbor that had the 342 chests of tea in it. They dropped every one of them into Boston Harbor.

End of December, 1773

England's getting back at us for dumping the tea into the harbor. Lord North, the Prime Minister of England has issued the "Intolerable Acts." He has said that the port of Boston shall be closed so no goods can come in or go out. We'll starve if we don't get any of the supplies we need. We can't even have our town meetings. The British governor is taking over. We even have soldiers again.

October 26, 1774

For the past month, the First Continental Congress has met in Philadelphia. All the important men of the colonies have been there, like Washington, John Adams, and Patrick Henry. They made a declaration to send to England telling her what our rights should be and complaining about England's treatment of her colonies.

April 18, 1775

There has been no change of policy from England. Today General Gage and his troops marched to Lexington. They were going to arrest Samuel Adams and John Hancock. A group of minutemen were standing on the green. Shots were fired, We lost a few men. The British tried to go to Concord but were forced to turn back. Our men were following and shooting at them.

May, 1775

Second Continental Congress met this month and drew up another petition. It was sent to England. The King has told us that we are rebelling.

December, 1775

The Continental Congress has taken over. It has passed a law to make our own currency. It has also opened up our ports to trade from countries other than just England.

December 22, 1775

England has forbidden her merchants to trade with us. They have also started seizing our ships.

May 15, 1776

I knew it would be happening soon. Congress has passed a resolution saying we will draw up our declaration of independence.

WHY INDEPENDENCE?

NARRATOR: What happened during those days before the Revolution that made the colonists want their independence? The trouble began when King George came to the throne in England in 1760. He thought he should rule over the colonies instead of letting the colonists govern themselves.

Now hear what the first English policies were. King George is addressing the English Parliament.

KING GEORGE: Parliament, we have had many wars in Europe. We need to get money from the colonies to help pay for them. How can we get this money?

PARLIAMENT: (Murmuring can be heard as to what must be done.)

ONE: We must tax the colonists!

TWO: We can make them buy more of our goods!

KING GEORGE: Members of Parliament, the Navigation Acts have been passed already, but the colonists don't obey them. If we could enforce these acts, we could raise the money we need. (Murmurs are heard among the members.)

A MEMBER: I agree. They can't say we've passed a new law. We're only making the old laws work.

KING: Put it to a vote.

KING: (After a pause) You have decided, then, that the colonies will trade only with us on our own English ships.

NARRATOR: This first move caused the colonial merchants to complain, but they knew that the passage of the Navigation Acts was legal. They took little action against the policy at first. In 1764, more happened that made the colonies protest.

Voice announces: Prime Minister Grenville.

PRIME MINISTER: Members of Parliament, we need a new tax on the colonists. Our troops in the colonies need money to survive. I propose a Stamp Act. The colonists must pay a fee for a stamp that has to be put on all important documents.

NARRATOR: This Stamp Act was passed by Parliament. It was the first time Parliament had placed such a tax on the colonists. How they reacted to this new tax is another story.

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NARRATOR: Now we can listen to a discussion among a group of colonists.

FIRST COLONIST: The Navigation Acts were bad, but this Stamp Act is truly unjust. We shouldn't stand for such treatment from England.

SECOND COLONIST: The Sons of Liberty have formed here in Boston and have pledged not to buy goods from England. That ought to do something about these Navigation Acts.

THIRD COLONIST: That's right. I've seen mobs protesting to the King's governor also.

SECOND COLONIST: The House of Burgesses in Virginia was upset over the Stamp Act. It said only the colonial governments here in America have the right to tax us. We never even had a say in Parliament before the tax was passed.

FIRST COLONIST: It's taxation without representation, that's what it is!

FOURTH COLONIST: Good Day! Have you heard? The Stamp Act Congress has sent a declaration to England. They told them of our rights and what our grievances are. They firmly stated that we can't be taxed by England.

NARRATOR: The colonists firmly believed what they were doing was right. England heard and read of dissatisfaction among the colonies and finally repealed the Stamp Act.

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NARRATOR: Things did not remain at ease long in the colonies, for the English Chancellor was about to place another tax on the colonists. The chancellor's name was Townshend, so we call these policies the Townshend Acts of 1767.

CHANCELLOR: I propose a new tax to raise money from the colonies. The colonists will pay a duty on such items as tea, paper, and glass coming into the colonies from England.

NARRATOR: Needless to say, the colonists were very much upset over this new act. Let's listen to what a group of colonial merchants had to say about the new English policy.

FIRST MERCHANT: This new tax will certainly hurt business. This extra duty will cause many colonists to stop buying the goods we've imported from England.

SECOND MERCHANT: I've heard that all the colonists are refusing to let these goods be brought into the port of Boston.

THIRD MERCHANT: I don't blame them. It will hurt business, but this tax has to be stopped. Refusing to buy the goods is the only possible way to do it.

SECOND MERCHANT: I've received a letter today saying all of the colonists here in Massachusetts are going to write a group protest to send to England. I hope it will do some good.

NARRATOR: These attempts of the colonists to affect English policy worked. The Townshend Acts were repealed, except for the tax on tea.

SECTION II:

The Declaration of Independence and Its Meaning

In this section of the unit, the children will read and study the Declaration of Independence itself. The general focus and presentation of the material will be related to our basic structure for the course. Use will be made here of the diagram or structure of the governing process, the ideal vs. reality concept in government and the trilogy concept of sameness and differences among the colonists. With these tools, the ideas studied in the Declaration should be made clearer and more meaningful to the child.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE
IN CONGRESS JULY 4, 1776

The Unanimous Declaration of the Thirteen United States of America

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government.

The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative Houses repeatedly for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of people.

He has refused for a long time after such dissolutions to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws, giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation;

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury;

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses;

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the forms of our governments;

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms: our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their Legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the United States of America, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are and of right ought to be Free and Independent States, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved and that as free and independent states they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK

New Hampshire
Josiah Bartlett
Wm. Whipple
Matthew Thornton

Massachusetts Bay
Saml. Adams
John Adams
Robt. Treat Paine
Elbridge Gerry

Rhode Island
Step. Hopkins
William Ellery

Connecticut
Roger Sherman
Sam'el Huntington
Wm. Williams
Oliver Wolcott

New York
Wm. Floyd
Phil. Livingston
Frans. Lewis
Lewis Morris

New Jersey
Richd. Stockton
Jno. Witherspoon
Fras. Hopkinson
John Hart
Abra. Clark

Pennsylvania
Robt. Morris
Benja. Rush
Benja. Franklin
John Morton
Geo. Clymer
Jas. Smith
Geo. Taylor
James Wilson
Geo. Ross

Delaware
Caesar Rodney
Geo. Read
Tho. M'Kean

Maryland
Samuel Chase
Wm. Paca
Thos. Stone
Charles Carroll of Carrolton

Virginia
George Whythe
Richard Henry Lee
Th. Jefferson
Benja. Harrison
Thos. Nelson Jr.
Francis Lightfoot Lee
Carter Braxton

North Carolina
Wm. Hooper
Joseph Hawes
John Penn

South Carolina
Edward Rutledge
Thos. Heyward, Junr
Thomas Lynch, Junr
Arthur Middleton

Georgia
Button Gwinnett
Lyman Hall
Geo. Walton

I. The Signers of the Declaration of Independence

A. Teacher should pass out mimeographed copies of the Declaration of Independence to each child. She should read it through with the children following along. Do not discuss anything at this time. Let the children raise questions in their own minds and get out of the reading as much as they can on their own.

B. Now look at the last page and the signers of the Declaration.

1. Teacher should point out the names of the original thirteen states and the number of men who signed. Then give each child the name of one signer to do research on in the class encyclopedia, history text,etc.

a. Teacher should list on the board the information that the children should be looking for,such as nationality, birthplace, occupation, education, age at signing, family background, religion, ownership of land,and any other relevant facts.

b. When the children have completed this assignment, the teacher should put the above categories on the board one at a time. (Example: the age at signing.) Call for answers to each category from each child on the person he researched. When all ages, for example, are compiled on the board, count those in the twenties, thirties, etc. It will be seen that the majority were in the thirty to forty range.

c. Continue through other categories, such as religion, family background, ownership of land, nationality, education, and occupation, and draw similar conclusions. (The figures on the next page may help.)

d. Now looking at the figures, the teacher should call for a list of the ways most of these men were the same or what they had in common. Then ask the children what traits a colonist would probably have to have to become a leader of the colony. (He would probably be male, American-born, of professional occupation, good college education, Protestant religion, around thirty to forty years of age, of a wealthy, prominent family, and be an owner of property.)

C. Teacher now asks who the leader was in the Jamestown Colony. At the same time, take out picture of the House of Burgesses so the children can see that only the white adult male was a leader in the Jamestown Colony.

1. Take out the picture of the scene in the Jamestown Colony and the Plantation Scene. Teacher should now have the children recall the other groups that were in the colonies. Make a list on the board of these. (Women, youth, Negro, Indian)
2. On oaktag cards place probable characteristics of the prominent men of the colonies. The teacher may line these up on the board ledge

A FEW FACTS TO HELP WITH THE DISCUSSION ON THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

Nationality

American Born - 48

Connecticut - 5

Delaware - 2

Maryland - 5

Massachusetts - 10

New Jersey - 3

New York - 3

Pennsylvania - 5

Rhode Island - 2

South Carolina - 4

Virginia - 9

Foreign Born - 8

England - 2

Scotland - 2

Ireland - 3

Wales - 1

Education

Harvard - 8

Yale - 4

Princeton - 2

William & Mary - 3

Philadelphia - 5

Foreign Colleges - 10

Tutors at home - 9

Common School - 6

Self-taught - 8

No Information - 1

Occupations

Lawyers - 23

Merchants - 12

Farmers - 2

Doctors - 4

Ministers - 1

Planters - 6

Manufacturers - 2

Landowners - 2

Printer - 1

Politician - 1

Age at Signing

20's - 2

30's - 17

40's - 20

50's - 10

60's - 5

70's - 1

Representatives from the South were mostly wealthy plantation owners. The only poor signer was George Walton.

The only Catholic was James Carroll, who was also the wealthiest man of the colony.

or tape them to the blackboard with masking tape. The teacher now puts the name of one group in the colony on the board. Call on one child at a time to come up and take down one of the characteristic cards that applies to this group. Continue until all the cards that apply to this group are down. Do the same for the next group.

(Example: Negro - may be born in America, Protestant religion, thirty to forty, and male

Woman - American-born, Protestant religion, thirty to forty, and of wealthy, prominent family

When finished, the teacher asks the children: Do these groups of women, youth, Negroes, and Indians have all the characteristics a leader of the colony would have? Would they have as much chance as the signers of the Declaration in becoming a leader?

3. Think now in terms of Ideal vs. Reality. The teacher should explain that the ideal is that everyone in the colonies is equal and has the same chance of becoming a leader. Ask the children what they think the reality is here. (Everyone in the colonies does not have this chance. In this way, equality for all did not exist before the Revolution.)

II. Sections of the Declaration of Independence

Points of information: The Declaration was the first time the name United States of America was used officially. Nowhere is there mention made of the term Declaration of Independence.

A. Preamble

1. The teacher should explain that the opening paragraph is called the "Introduction" or "Preamble." Children should write this word on the vocabulary page of their notebooks.
2. The teacher should read this paragraph through. Put any new words on the board and discuss them with the children as to what their meaning might be from context. (Do not gather a whole list, but pick out a few good words that are related to our study of government and that might be useful to the child.) Have the children write them on the vocabulary page, and for an assignment here, the teacher could have the children look up meanings in the dictionary and write them in a sentence.
3. Children could now take out their copies of the Declaration of Independence. The teacher could allow the children to break up into groups, having each group try to explain in a few words what the Preamble says. In a few minutes, call for ideas from the children.
    a. Teacher and children should now read through the Preamble line by line to try to get the meaning. (The Preamble states the purpose of the Declaration. When a group finds it necessary to separate from another body of people and become independent, they must state the reasons for doing this.)

B. Second Paragraph - the purpose and nature of government

1. The teacher should read this paragraph with the children following along. Again new words should be placed on the board. The children should discuss possible meanings from context and then copy them on the vocabulary page of their notebooks. (Here again the children could look up the meanings in a dictionary and write each word in a sentence.)
2. The teacher now asks what one word is repeated over and over in this paragraph and tells what this section is all about. (Government.)
   a. If the children cannot recall, allow them to skim the paragraph to find the answer.
3. In groups, answer the following questions on this paragraph. This may also be done as an individual assignment. (These questions may be put on the board, copied by the children or mimeographed.)
   a. What rights are all men given?
   b. Why are governments made?
   c. Where does a government get its power?
   d. When do people have the right to abolish a government and set up a new one?

After the above questions have been finished by the children, teacher and students together should skim over the paragraph verifying answers the children give to these questions. From "Prudence" on is rather difficult. The teacher should read from here to the end of this paragraph and give a simpler explanation to the children. (People do not change their government for small reasons. They would suffer rather than change something that they have been used to for a long time. But when abuse is great and someone becomes too harsh a ruler, it is time to change government for the people's own security. This is now what the colonies must do.)

4. General diagram of the content of the Declaration thus far should be begun here by the teacher. It could be placed on a bulletin board or put on oaktag cards and taped to the board with masking tape.

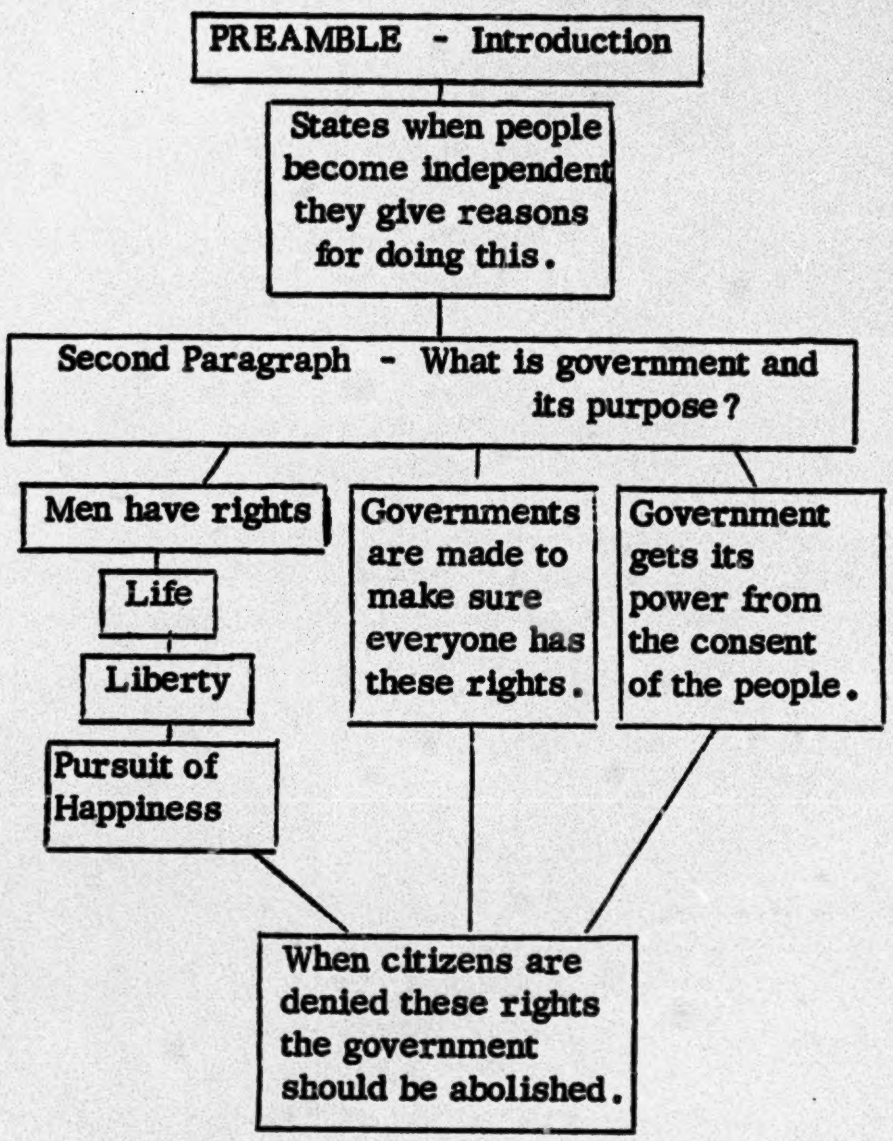
   a. A good diagram that could be used to include important ideas from these two sections follows on the next page. (Diagram could be copied by the children in their notebooks also.)

C. Section III - List of Charges against King George Justifying the Declaration of Independence (Largest Section)

1. The teacher again should read the section through. Place a list on the board of all the words that are new to the children, again remembering not to make too long a list but one with a few, good, relevant words. Find the words in context. Try to determine together their meaning here. As assignment, write these words on the vocabulary page with their meanings.

Supplementary vocabulary activity.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE IN DIAGRAM


PREAMBLE - Introduction
States when people become independent they give reasons for doing this.
Second Paragraph - What is government and its purpose?
Men have rights
Life
Liberty
Pursuit of Happiness
Governments are made to make sure everyone has these rights.
Government gets its power from the consent of the people.
When citizens are denied these rights the government should be abolished.

a. By now we have gathered quite a few new words from the Declaration. On oaktag cards, the teacher could print all the new words from the Declaration thus far. Line them up on the board face down. Divide the class into groups. Call on one person from each group to come up and pick a card, turn it over, and give the meaning of the word on it. If he gives the correct meaning of the word, he takes the card back to the group; if he does not know the meaning, he puts the card back with the others. This continues from group to group until all the cards are gone. The group with the most cards wins.

2. All the paragraphs in this section are short and tell about a charge against King George. Teacher now assigns each child one paragraph in this section. Let him read it and instruct him to be prepared to tell the class what the charge against King George is in the paragraph. Give the children ample time and then go through this section together as a class. Ask each child to explain his paragraph. Do this in sequential order. Have the other children and the teacher lend help when needed. When a reasonable statement is made, the teacher should write it down on an oaktag card. Place it on the board with masking tape for our diagram of section three of the Declaration. (For examples turn to the next page.)

SECTION III - List of Charges Against King George Justifying the Declaration of Independence

1. Refused to allow laws for colonists' good.
2. Governors could not pass laws until King approved and he usually neglected to do this.
3. Would not allow laws to help people in large districts unless they gave up their representative in legislature.
4. Called legislative meetings in distant places from where records were, so representatives would tire and give in to his laws.
5. Ended representative meetings that opposed his treatment of people.
6. Representatives opposing his laws were not re-elected. His power could not be removed.
7. Tried to prevent colonies from passing laws to naturalize foreigners, to encourage their coming, or to ensure better land appropriations.
8. Obstructed justice by not allowing laws for judiciary powers.
9. Judges depended on him for tenure and salary.
10. Made many new offices to bring officers to colonies.
11. Kept standing armies in colonies without legislative consent.
12. Tried to make military not under civil control.
13. Put colonies under rule unlike their own.
14. Quartered troops in colonies.
15. Protected troops for crimes they committed against colonists by mock trial.
16. Cut off colonies' trade with other nations.
17. Taxed colonies without their consent.
18. Did not give colonists trial by jury.
19. Sent colonists to England to be tried for pretended offenses.
20. Did away with usual English law and put his absolute rule in colonies.
21. Took away colonies' charter, laws, and changed their form of government.
22. Did away with colonial legislature and made the English rulers in all matters.
23. Gave up his government here and waged war against us.
24. Ruined and destroyed ships, goods, towns, and lives of the colonists.
25. Sent foreign soldiers to fight us.
26. Took colonists captive at sea to fight against us or die.
27. Tried to get Indians to destroy us.

3. When finished with the above activity, a supplementary art lesson might be given. Have the children pick one of the charges and illustrate it. On an index card write down the charge. (It can be copied from a diagram on display.) A game could be made of this when the children have finished.) Have them hold up their drawings and let the class guess the charge.
4. Another activity relating to this section would be to have each child pick one charge and work out a diagram of the governing process from it. In the next session, look at the class outline of the Declaration. Go through each charge, and let any child who has a diagram of this charge stand, show the diagram, and explain it. The class could correct any mistakes.
5. Final activity for this section would be to look at our class diagram of the Declaration again.
   a. Teacher and class together make a list on the board of the ideals the government should have. (All men are equal; right to life; right to liberty; right to happiness; government lets everyone have these rights; government gets its power from the people.)
   b. Have the class recall all the charges the colonists had against King George. This was what actually happened in the colonies. The ideals of government were far from the reality.

(i) Ask the children if they can remember any charge that violates any of our ideals of government. Let them find it in section three of the diagram; give the number of it and read it aloud.

(ii) Class should then discuss whether or not the charge is a violation of the ideal and place the number of the charge on the board next to the ideal it violates.

(iii) After comparing the ideal with the reality, the teacher asks if the ideals of government as stated in the Declaration (such as liberty and equality for all) existed in the colonies for everyone. (Summary: We have seen in our discussion that all in the colonies were not equal or did not have the same chance to become a leader and that the rights a government should give its people were also not given to all the colonists.)

D. Section IV - Last Paragraph and Formal Declaration of Independence

1. Teacher again reads this paragraph through and calls for ideas from the children as to its meaning. Finally she summarizes its meaning.

(This paragraph absolves the colonies from allegiance to England and breaks any political ties. The colonies are now free states which can levy war, conclude peace, contract alliance, and establish commerce.)

a. Write the new words on the board as before. Try to get the meaning from context. Write them on the vocabulary page with the meanings. Add these additional words to the others on oaktag cards and again play the game described in section II C. 1.a.

2. Add section IV to the class diagram on the Declaration.

SECTION III:

The Declaration Here and Now

Early colonial America and the America at the time of the Declaration of Independence have been studied thus far. Children have analyzed the Declaration as a document in the light of life during the early days of our country. Now we briefly compare colonial times with today.

Comparisons of the governing process then and now, as well as the trilogy concept and the concept of ideal vs. reality, will be analyzed in an attempt to summarize our basic understandings of this unit.

I. Some basic differences between 1776 and today

   A. Teacher first asks the children to recall the year when the Declaration of Independence was made. (1776) Then ask what year it is now. (1967) How can we find out the number of years between these two or the difference between them? (Subtract 1776 from 1967.)

      1. Send one child to the board to write down the example and let the class tell him how to perform the operation.

   B. Now the teacher should have the children turn to the back of their copies of the Declaration where the signers are listed.

      1. Have the children notice the states at this time. The teacher should ask how many states there were. (13)

      2. The teacher should take out a black outline of these states that has been placed on oaktag and put it where all can see.

      3. Ask the children how many states there are today. (50) Again a black outline of the United States today is brought out and placed next to the other outline of colonial America.

      4. Now the children can easily see and compare for themselves a basic difference between colonial America and today: the growth in the size of the country.

   C. Teacher now brings out the picture of the Jamestown Colony and has the children refer back to the groups of people found there.

      1. The teacher should remind the children of the discussion about

the nationality of most Americans at the time of the Declaration. Figures should be in the children's notes, if they forget. Ask what countries most of the colonists came from. (England, Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.)

2. Checking a population index in a social studies book or an encyclopedia, try to have the children find the population of the colonies around 1776. Compare this with the population of America today. Again the children might subtract and find the difference or the growth in the number of people since 1776.
3. Teacher now brings out pictures of people today in various parts of the country. Children will be able to see marked differences; for example, colors of skin, hair, dress, etc.
    a. Again recall the beginning of the course when the class compiled a list of the countries their ancestors came from. Call for some of the countries named. Make a list on the board next to the one of the nationalities of the colonists.
    b. Teacher asks for conclusions about population and nationality of the America of colonial days as compared to today. (Lead the children to see that today our country has more people who come from many more countries of the world.)
4. Teacher here should summarize. (Today we see our country is much larger. There are many more people here from many dif-

ferent countries. During colonial days we had few people from only a few countries. The leaders of the colonies were all white, adult males who had descended from people of England, Ireland, Scotland, or Wales.)

a. Ask what you would expect to have changed about the rulers of our country today. Should they be from the same small group as in colonial days?

b. Ideal vs. Reality: Teacher induces ideal here that rulers today are descendants of people from many countries, that they are people of many colors and creeds.

c. Teacher here might call for suggestions as to what the reality might be. Do not comment on the statements, but explain that we will now investigate to see what the reality is.

II. Characteristics of rulers today

A. As a class, recall our list of characteristics of rulers in the colonial days. (Male, American-born, professional occupation, good college education, Protestant religion, thirty to forty years old when prominent, from a wealthy family, and owner of property.)

B. As an assignment, have the children go home and look through magazines and newspapers to find pictures of leaders of our nation today.

1. In the next session, call for a list of the people they found.

2. Teacher should bring out a picture of the House of Representatives

and the one of the Senate where some of these leaders might be found.

C. Here again the teacher places on the board the different categories we used in describing colonial people; (Birthplace, occupation, education, age when prominent, family background, ownership of land)

  1. Pass out the mimeographed sheets that have a short profile of some leaders of our land today. (Copies of these follow on the next 12 pages.)

JOHN FITZGERALD KENNEDY

Thirty-fifth President of the United States

John F. Kennedy was born in Brookline, Massachusetts, on May 29, 1917. His great-grandfather had settled in Boston in 1850 after coming to this country from Ireland. One of Kennedy's grandfathers served in both houses of the Massachusetts legislature. The other was also a state legislator, mayor of Boston, and a congressman. Kennedy's father was a business executive who became the United States Ambassador to Great Britain.

Kennedy received his early education at Choate School, Wallingford, Connecticut. He then studied in England for a summer before going to Princeton. After a few months at this university, he became ill and left. When he was well again, he went to Harvard. He then did further work at Stanford University. He also traveled through Europe and South America.

During World War II, he became a lieutenant in the Navy and had duty at sea in the South Pacific.

In March of 1945, Kennedy started his career in newspaper work. The next year he ran and won a seat in the House of Representatives from Massachusetts. A few years later he was elected to a seat in the Senate.

The climax of his career came with his election to the Presidency of the United States in 1960. At forty-four, he was the youngest president in history and also the first Roman Catholic to be elected to the highest office in the land.

His short career came to an end in November of 1963 when he was assassinated in Dallas, Texas.

LYNDON BAINES JOHNSON

Thirty-sixth President of the United States

Lyndon B. Johnson was born in Stonewall, Texas, on August 27, 1908. His great-grandfather was of English descent and fought in the Revolutionary War. Lyndon's father was a rancher and served in the Texas State Legislature. The Johnson family are members of the Christian Church.

Johnson received his early schooling in the public schools of Johnson City, Texas, and was graduated from Southwest Texas State Teacher's College in 1930. He then went to Georgetown University Law School. His first job was teaching in Texas.

A few years later, as a Democrat, he ran for his first office. He was elected to the United States House of Representatives. In 1948, he became a Senator from Texas. In 1960, when John Kennedy ran for President, Johnson served as Vice President. After Kennedy's assassination on November 22, 1963, Johnson became the thirty-sixth President of the United States at the age of fifty-five.

HUBERT H. HUMPHREY

Vice President of the United States under
President Lyndon Baines Johnson

Hubert Humphrey was born on May 27, 1911, in Wallace, South Dakota. His family belonged to the Congregational Church there.

Humphrey went to Denver College after his elementary and secondary education, but left before graduating to work for his father's drug company. He later returned to college and graduated from the University of Minnesota. After getting his master's degree from the University of Louisiana, Humphrey was a college professor for a while.

His political career began when he was elected Mayor of Minneapolis in 1945. In 1948, he was elected to the United States Senate from Minnesota. Hubert Humphrey, a man in his early fifties, was chosen as running mate for Lyndon B. Johnson in the 1964 presidential campaign. Today, he holds the office of Vice President of the United States.

DEAN RUSK

Secretary of State under
Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson

Dean Rusk, a member of the Presbyterian Church, was born in Cherokee County, Georgia, on February 9, 1909. His father was a mail carrier and a farmer.

Dean went to the public schools in Atlanta, Georgia, and graduated from Davidson College in 1931. He went to Oxford University on a Rhodes Scholarship and later received his master's degree. To help pay for more education, he worked for two years in a law office in Atlanta.

Mr. Rusk studied at the University of Berlin before becoming a professor at Mills College in California. In 1940, he went into the United States Army. A few years after the war, he was made assistant Secretary of State. John F. Kennedy chose Dean Rusk as his Secretary of State in 1962. Mr. Rusk was then fifty-two years of age. When President Johnson was inaugurated, he kept Mr. Rusk in this same position.

ROBERT S. McNAMARA

Secretary of Defense under
Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson

Robert McNamara was born in San Francisco, California, on June 9, 1916, the son of Presbyterian parents. His father was an executive in a shoe industry.

McNamara received his elementary and secondary education in the public schools of Piedmont, California. He then graduated from the University of California and got his master's degree from Harvard.

McNamara's first job was with an accounting firm in San Francisco. The next year he returned to Harvard to teach. In 1942 he became a consultant for the War Department and then entered the Air Force.

After the war, he worked his way up in business and became president of the Ford Motor Company.

In 1961, John F. Kennedy named him Secretary of Defense. McNamara was then forty-five. He still holds the office under Lyndon B. Johnson.

STEWART L. UDALL

Secretary of the Interior under Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson

Stewart Udall was born in Saint Johns, Arizona, on January 31, 1920. His father was a Mormon missionary who founded the town of Saint Johns. Later his father became the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court in Arizona.

Udall received his early education in public schools in Saint Johns. He then graduated from the University of Arizona.

During World War II, Udall served with the army in Italy. He became a lawyer after the war and practiced law for six years in Tucson.

In 1954, he was elected to the United States House of Representatives. In 1961, at the age of forty-one, he was named by President Kennedy to the post of Secretary of the Interior, an office he continued to hold under the Johnson administration.

ORVILLE L. FREEMAN

Secretary of Agriculture under Presidents John F. Kennedy and Lyndon Johnson

Orville Freeman was born in Minneapolis, Minnesota, on May 9, 1918. His father was a merchant and a member of the Lutheran Church. As a child, Orville attended Minneapolis public schools. He graduated from the University of Minnesota in 1940.

Freeman served with the Marine Corps during the Second World War. He became a lawyer in Minnesota in 1947.

His political career began in 1956 when he was elected governor of Minnesota. He was re-elected to the same position in 1958. He made the nominating speech for John F. Kennedy at the Democratic Convention in 1960. In 1961, John F. Kennedy named Freeman, aged forty-three, to the position of Secretary of Agriculture, and he has continued in that post under President Johnson.

EVERETT M. DIRKSEN

Member of the United States Senate

Everett Dirksen was born in Pekin, Illinois, on January 4, 1896. His family were members of the Reformed Church of Pekin. His father had come to the United States from Germany in 1875 and settled in Pekin, where he was an artist.

Everett Dirksen went to the University of Minnesota, but left before graduating to join the army. Years later, he completed school in Washington and became a lawyer.

In 1932, Dirksen was elected to Congress from the state of Illinois. In 1949, he had to leave Congress because of problems with his eye. He started working as a lawyer, but in the same year, at the age of fifty-three, he was elected to the Senate from Illinois, a position he still holds today.

WAYNE L. MORSE

Member of the United States Senate

Wayne Morse was born in Madison, Wisconsin, on October 20, 1900. He is a descendant of John Morse, an immigrant from England who helped to found New Haven, Connecticut. His father was well known as a raiser of livestock. His family were members of the Congregational Church.

Wayne worked to put himself through the University of Wisconsin. After graduate school, he became a college professor and then Dean of the University of Oregon Law School. He was thirty-one at this time and the youngest dean of a reputable law school in our country.

In 1944, Morse ran for the Senate as a Republican and won. He was then aged forty-four. Today he is still a member of the United States Senate from the State of Oregon, but he has shifted to the Democratic Party.

STUART SYMINGTON

Member of the United States Senate

Stuart Symington was born in Amherst, Massachusetts, on June 26, 1901. His family was Episcopalian in religious belief. His father was a lawyer and a judge.

Stuart received his early education in the public schools of Baltimore, Maryland. After a period of service in the army, he went to Yale University. He left there before graduating and got a job as an iron molder in New York. Then he worked for a railroad equipment company. He went to school nights and in 1927 was made executive vice-president of the company.

Symington's political career began in 1946, when he was made Secretary of the Air Force. In 1952, at the age of fifty-one, he was elected to the Senate from Missouri. He is still a Senator from that state today.

EDWARD W. BROOKE

Member of the United States Senate

In January of 1967, Edward Brooke became the first Negro to be elected by the people to the United States Senate since the time of the Reconstruction.

Edward Brooke was born on October 26, 1919, in Washington, D.C. He grew up in a Negro neighborhood in an upper-middle-class Episcopalian family. His father was a lawyer with the Veteran's Administration. His mother came from a large plantation-owning family in Virginia.

Brooke's first formal education was in the public schools in Washington, D.C. He then attended Howard University in Washington and graduated in 1941.

During the Second World War, he was stationed in Italy and received the Bronze Star. When the war ended, Brooke went to Boston University Law School. He became a lawyer in 1948. His first law office was in Roxbury, Massachusetts.

Brooke began his political career by running for state representative in 1950 and again in 1952, but lost both times. In 1960, Brooke decided to run for Secretary of State, but lost again.

Finally, in 1962, he ran for Attorney General of Massachusetts and was elected. In 1967, at the age of forty-eight, Brooke was elected to the United States Senate as a Republican from Massachusetts.

JOHN A. VOLPE

Governor of Massachusetts

John Volpe was born on December 8, 1908, in Wakefield, Massachusetts. He and his family are members of the Roman Catholic Church. His father came from Italy and was a plasterer by trade. John attended Malden High School and then went to Wentworth Institute in Boston.

He entered business in 1933 by starting the Volpe Construction Company. In 1943, when he entered the navy, his business was closed. After the war, the company was reopened and became a very successful business.

Volpe had been active in politics, and in 1960, at the age of fifty-two, he ran for Governor of the state of Massachusetts and was elected.

2. Explain that in reading through these sheets the children are to be looking for appropriate items for the categories listed on the board.

3. This activity of reading to find specific information may be done in different ways. The teacher could assign each individual one profile; the class could be divided into groups and then allowed to read and discuss among themselves the data on two or three people; or this may be a class activity where children read and bring out answers as a group. Class discussion should follow any of the above activities.

4. The teacher passes out to each child two of the charts that accompany this lesson. Six profiles are to be analyzed on each chart. All the information to be filled in has been discussed in the above activity. These charts, again, can be filled in as a class activity, a group project, or an individual assignment. (In any case, a few could be done in the beginning with the teacher so that the children will understand the procedure. The rest may be done on their own and checked later. The information to be filled in on the charts follows on the next three pages.)

III. Comparisons of the rulers today with colonial rulers

A. The teacher places the names of each category from the charts on oaktag cards. Fasten them with masking tape one under the other on the board.

LEADERS OF OUR LAND

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH AND BIRTHPLACE	EDUCATION	OCCUPATION	FAMILY BACKGROUND	RELIGION	AGE, POSITION WHEN PROMINENT
JOHN F. KENNEDY	May 29, 1917 Brookline, Mass.	Choate School in Connecticut Harvard College Stanford Univ.	Navy Newspaper work House of Representatives Senate President	Grandfathers in politics Father Ambassador to Gt. Britain	Roman Catholic	44 35th President of the United States
LYNDON B. JOHNSON	August 27, 1908 Stonewall, Texas	Public schools in Texas Texas Teachers College. Georgetown Law School	Teacher House of Representatives Senator Vice-President	Father, rancher and in state legislature	Christian Church	55 36th President of the United States
HUBERT H. HUMPHREY	May 27, 1911 Wallace, So. Dakota	Public schools Denver College (didn't graduate) Univ. of Minn. Univ. of Louisiana	Drug Company College Prof. Mayor Senate	Father owned a drug company	Congregational	53 Vice President of the United States
DEAN RUSK	Feb. 9, 1909 Cherokee County, Georgia	Public schools in Atlanta Davidson College Oxford Univ. Univ. of Berlin	College Prof. Army Asst. Sec. of State	Father a mail carrier and a farmer	Presbyterian	52 Secretary of State
ROBERT S. McNAMARA	June 9, 1916 San Francisco, Calif.	Public schools in California Univ. of Calif. Harvard	Accountant College Prof. Consultant for War Dept. Air Force Pres. of Ford Motor Co.	Father executive in shoe factory	Presbyterian	45 Secretary of Defense

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH AND BIRTHPLACE	EDUCATION	OCCUPATION	FAMILY BACKGROUND	RELIGION	AGE, POSITION WHEN PROMINENT
STEWART L. UDALL	Jan 31, 1920 Saint Johns, Arizona	Public schools in Saint Johns Univ. of Arizona Law School	Army Lawyer House of Representatives	Father, Mormon missionary and Chief Justice of Arizona Supreme Court	Mormon	41 Secretary of Interior
ORVILLE L. FREEMAN	May 9, 1918 Minneapolis, Minnesota	Public schools Univ. of Minn. Law School	Marine Corps Lawyer Governor	Father a merchant	Lutheran	43 Secretary of Agriculture
EVERETT M. DIRKSEN	Jan. 4, 1896 Pekin, Ill.	Public schools Univ. of Minn. (didn't graduate) Night school Law School	Army Lawyer Congress	Father came from Germany and was an artist	Reformed Church	53 Senator
WAYNE L. MORSE	Oct. 20, 1900 Madison, Wisconsin	Public schools Univ. of Wis. Graduate School	College Prof. Dean of Law School	Descendant of John Morse of England, a founder of New Haven, Conn. Father raised livestock	Congregational	44 Senator
STUART SYMINGTON	June 26, 1901 Amherst, Massachusetts	Public schools Yale Univ. (didn't grad.) Night school	Iron molder Army Railroad-equip. company Vice-Pres. of this company Sec. of Air Force	Father a lawyer and judge	Eipscopalian	51 Senator

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH AND BIRTHPLACE	EDUCATION	OCCUPATION	FAMILY BACKGROUND	RELIGION	AGE, POSITION WHEN PROMINENT
EDWARD W. BROOKE	Oct. 26, 1919 Washington, D.C.	Public schools Howard Univ. Boston Univ. Law School	Army Lawyer Attorney General of Massachusetts	Father a lawyer with the Veterans Administration Mother from plantation in Va.	Episcopalian	48 Senator
JOHN A. VOLPE	Dec. 8, 1908 Wakefield, Massachusetts	Public schools Malden High Wentworth Institute	Started Volpe Construction Company Navy	Father from Italy and was a plasterer	Roman Catholic	52 Governor of Massachusetts

Next to this column label a second column "Colonial Days" and a third column "Today."

1. Recall together the birthplaces of most signers of the Declaration. (Children may check details in their notebooks if they have forgotten.) "American-born" will be the answer. Write this in the second column. The next category is "Education." For most in colonial days, it was a college degree. Continue through all the categories, writing down the answers for colonial days in the second column.
2. Now the children should take the two charts they have filled out on the rulers of today. Place one underneath the other. Start with the first category, "Birthplace," and draw conclusions about where most leaders were born. All were born in America. So write "American-born" in the third column. Continue like this until all the categories have been discussed. (Probable answers to this exercise are shown on the next page.)

B. A discussion period could follow using the chart on the next page. A game might be made of this. You could call it "I Wonder Why." The teacher poses the following questions as incentive to class discussion:

1. I wonder why there is a change (or little change) from mostly American-born rulers in colonial days to all American-born rulers today?
2. I wonder what the change in the amount of education of today's rulers must mean?

CATEGORY	COLONIAL DAYS	TODAY
BIRTHPLACE	Most were American-born	All were American-born
EDUCATION	College degree	College and graduate school
OCCUPATION	Mostly professional; ex., lawyer, doctor	Mostly professional positions
FAMILY BACKGROUND	Mostly wealthy, from prominent families	Most were wealthy, prominent, and/or in politics
RELIGION	All Protestant	Mostly Protestant
AGE WHEN PROMINENT	30 - 40	40 - 50

3. I wonder why there is a change (or little change) in religious affiliation from all Protestant in colonial times to mostly Protestant today?

4. I wonder why the age of the rulers has gone from 30 to 40 in colonial days to between 40 and 50 today?

IV. Policy Then and Now

A. As an assignment, have the children bring in news clippings that contain information on important national topics in the news today. Make a list of these on the board. The list may include such things as

racial problems
the Vietnam war
draft laws

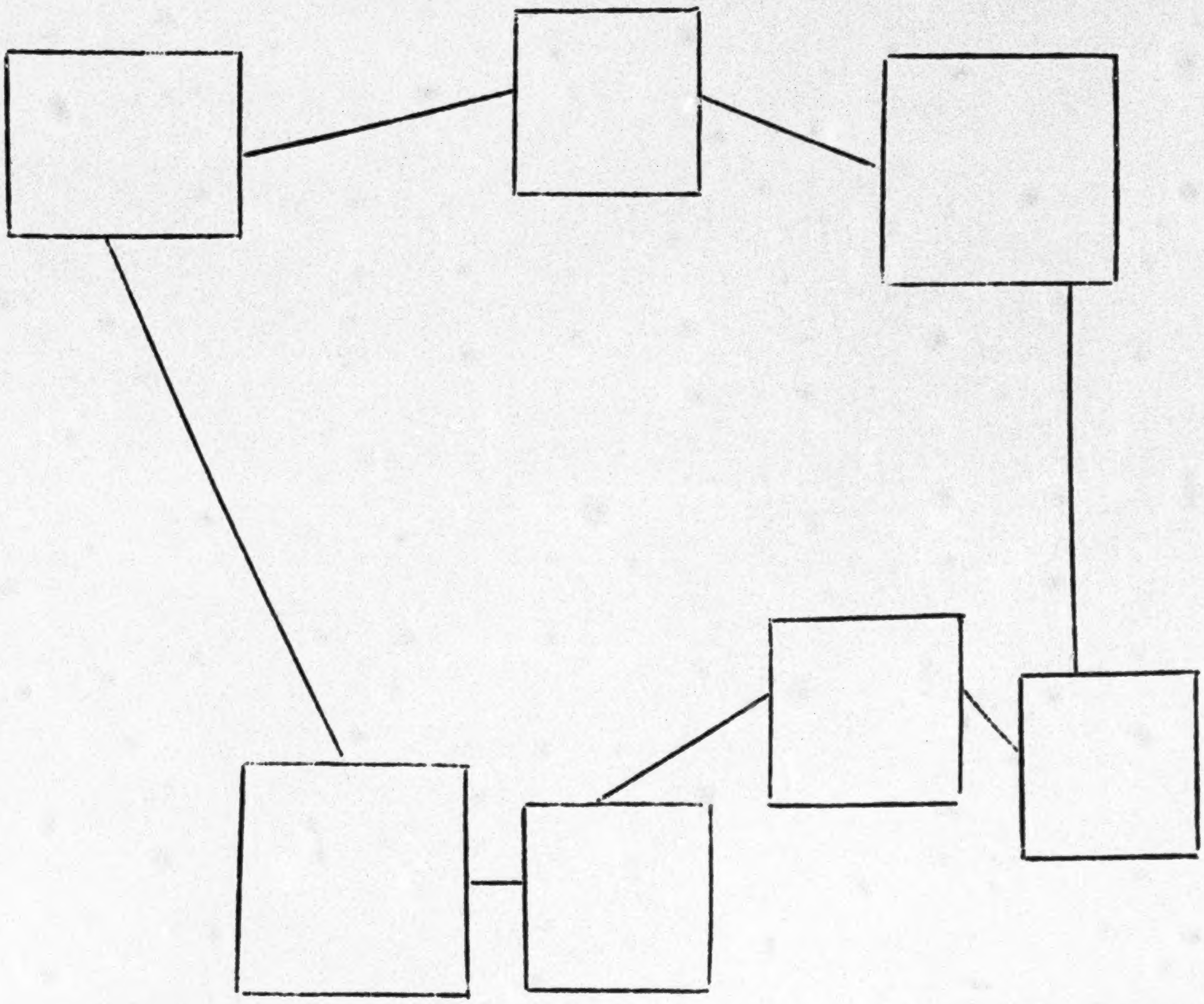
1. As a class activity, read and discuss the articles that the children bring in. For each issue, try to write the ruler, ruled, and a brief statement of the policy.

2. Now have the children take one of the policies discussed and make a diagram of the governing process for it.

   a. To check the results, the children could put their diagrams on the board, or they could show and explain them to the class, or the class may be allowed to guess the issue from seeing the diagrams.

   b. Finally a bulletin board display entitled "Policy in the United

States Today" might be created, using some of the better diagrams made by the children.



c. Children could copy this display in a blank page of their notebooks if they wish.

V. Affecting Policy Then and Now

A. The class should turn back to Section II of the unit, to the charts of ruler, ruled, policy, ways to affect policy that the children filled in.

1. Look at the line of affecting policy.

2. On the board make two columns, with these headings:

Ways the Colonists Tried to Affect Policy	How People Today Try to Affect Policy

3. In Column I, list the ways the colonists tried to affect policy.

4. Refer to the newspaper clippings or background knowledge of the children to make a list in Column II of the ways people today are trying to affect policy.

B. Comparison should be made of the two columns. Children will see that the policies made and the reasons people have for changing them are still somewhat the same today as in colonial days. Also the methods used today to affect policy are not basically different from those of colonial times.

VI. The Declaration of Independence Then and Now

A. Turn back to Section II of the Declaration diagram, the rights of men. Have the children recall the situation before the Revolution. Ask the class, "Were all men given all these rights stated in the Declaration? Was everyone equal? For instance, did everyone have the same chance of becoming a leader?"

The teacher summarizes: Not all people before the Revolution were equal. Discussion here should be about the rights stated in the Declaration being denied the colonists. They then altered their form of government.

B. Equality and Rights Today

1. Take out our pictures of people in the United States today. The class makes a list together on the board of the different groups of people in this country. (Men, women, young adults, children of various racial and ethnic backgrounds.)
2. Use pictures of the Senate and the House of Representatives as well as the pictures the children brought in of leaders of our land today.
3. As a class, list beside the group categories the relative number of each group found in these pictures.

   Example:

   White women - one or two

   White men - almost all

   White young adults - none

   Negro adults - two or three

   Negro children - none

   Indians - none

   Orientals - none

   a. Recall the earlier conclusion that rulers in colonial days were adult white males. There were no leaders from these other groups.

   b. Ask the children if they think there has been much change over the past 191 years in the number of people from these groups in ruling positions. From looking at the above figures or the figures on the board, can one say that all people in the United States today have the same chance of becoming leaders? Then are all people equal in this way today? Are the ideals stated in the Declaration reality today for all in the United States?

4. A discussion might be held comparing the rights of the colonists and the rights of the Negro. In many instances today, the Negroes are denied the rights stated in the Declaration. When the colonists' rights were denied, they changed their form of government. One question to be raised here is: Will our form of government get changed today because of the denial of these rights to the Negro?

    a. Read together as a class the second paragraph of the Declaration on the characteristics of a government.

        i) The Declaration says a government is not changed for a few, trying reasons. They must be very grave. The class might discuss further the reasons why the Negroes desire change.

        ii) At the time of the Revolution almost all of the people in the colonies were dissatisfied. Discuss the following statements:

            a) The Negroes are one section of the population of the United States.

            b) Our form of government would be changed only if all society demanded it.

VII. Summary: Ideal vs. Reality

A. Our country has certain ideals that are stated in the Declaration. We fought for these ideals in the Revolutionary War. We are still fighting for them today.

B. Teacher recalls the list we made of policy today.

1. For each issue try to state the ideal and then the reality. This could be a class activity, a group activity, (where each group takes an issue and records the ideal and reality), or it could be an individual assignment.

Examples:

Race Problem

Ideal - All men are equal and have the same opportunities and rights.

Reality - All men are not equal. (Have children include specific examples here.)

Draft Laws

Ideal - All able men should serve our country in the armed forces.

Reality - All able men do not serve their country in the armed forces.

2. Summarize: In many ways we still have not reached our ideals. Men are still trying in various ways to make the ideals into reality.

FINAL SUMMARY OF THE UNIT BY THE TEACHER

In this unit, we have seen that the structure of the governing process is the same today as it was at the time of the Revolution. We still govern ourselves, make policies, and try to affect policy in similar ways. Policies do not always provide the ideals that are in the Declaration. Men are still struggling today as they were at the time of the Revolution to bring the realities of life in America closer to the ideals.

C. TEACHING THE UPPER GRADE UNIT

1. Teaching During the Working Party Year

Experimental teaching of the Upper Grade Unit began in January, 1967. These initial teaching tryouts played an integral part in the curriculum development process of the Working Party. The fall months were spent planning the intellectual framework and pilot materials for the unit; by January the Working Party members felt that trial teaching of the materials was necessary to test the preliminary design before revision could begin and before curriculum planning could continue. Consequently, on a part-time basis, members of the Working Party introduced the Upper Grade Unit in three Boston area school systems from January through June, 1967.[1]

Dr. John S. Gibson and Mrs. John E. Hilbert taught the introductory section of the unit and the first completed subunit on the Indians in thrice-weekly half-hour sessions at the Osgood, Columbus, and Brooks schools in Medford, Massachusetts. The approximately 85 students they taught represented diverse racial, religious, and ethnic backgrounds. During the sessions, Dr. Gibson and Mrs. Hilbert tested the basic materials and devised student activities to supplement the unit. For example, using boards, shoe boxes, paper hangers, and pictures, students made a number of dioramas demonstrating the process of governing. When they studied the Indian subunit, the students constructed additional dioramas representing the governing process of selected Indian tribes. Moreover, each student kept a notebook containing all personal observations, lists of samenesses and differences, charts of the governing process, examples of the trilogy, and lists of contrasting ideals and realities. In effect, the students were writing their own textbooks, and this activity became an outstanding feature of the unit, with great potential for future development. The staff plans to enlarge the scope of the notebook idea to make it a more valuable inductive learning device, with the students playing an even larger role in planning the organization and content.

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[1] Short tryouts of selected lessons were conducted (in the initial development stage) at two Newton, Massachusetts, elementary schools, but more structured pilot teaching did not begin until January.

Both Dr. Gibson and Mrs. Hilbert experimented successfully with several role-playing exercises, another excellent technique for involving the students in the learning process. In the Ideal-Reality section, for example (see CONTENT, UPPER-GRADE UNIT, Ideal - Reality, p.4), to develop an awareness of the Negro slave, a person, as property, the students relived an actual slave auction by acting out the roles of slaves, buyers, and auctioneer. This activity was followed up by a writing assignment in which each student took the role of a slave and described how he was brought to the United States on a ship from Africa, and what it felt like to be stood up on the auction block and sold. Student responses indicated that the children became quite involved in the activity and developed keen insights into the nature of the Negro background.

Similarly, in the "Here and Now" section of the Introduction (see CONTENT, UPPER-GRADE UNIT, Here and Now, p.5), while examining current urban issues, students were asked such questions as, "If the house you liked living in were going to be torn down, what would you do?" Students responded with a variety of concrete proposals (including construction of signs with messages aimed at changing the particular policy involved); and these proposals indicated a very real conception on the part of the students of the ways and means a responsible citizen can initiate positive action in his own behalf.

Throughout the six months in Medford, Dr. Gibson and Mrs. Hilbert observed each other's teaching, and their extensive notes provided a substantial source of feedback for the Working Party. With the aid of the notes, the members evaluated the current material, made necessary revisions, and planned for future modifications. The notes will continue to be of value in the coming year, especially in relation to the development of more complete teacher manuals.

In the latter part of May, Mrs. Hilbert began a second stage of pilot teaching with two fifth-grade classes three times a week at two elementary schools in Winchester, Massachusetts. Primarily because so little time remained in the school year, Mrs. Hilbert concentrated solely on the introductory section of the unit. Nevertheless, at this time she was able to draw on her experience at the Medford schools and consequently to initiate and test improvements recommended by the Working Party.

Inasmuch as the Working Party and the Center staff are strongly committed to aiding teachers who will eventually be using the project materials, and inasmuch as the experience and special teaching talents of Mrs. Hilbert were now available, the Center determined to proceed to the important area of teacher training. Consequently, using its own equipment and staff, the Center made videotapes of Mrs. Hilbert teaching at the Vincent-Owen school. The several tapes record all the lessons of the introductory section of the unit. These will be used in both pre-service and in-service teacher training not only to familiarize the teacher with the actual materials of the unit, but also to suggest methods of handling the material in the sensitive area with which they are concerned. Additionally, particular sections of the tapes will be used in demonstrating techniques in inductive teaching. Used in this manner, the tapes will be especially valuable, since without graphic representations, discussions of inductive teaching are elusive. Finally, the videotapes proved to be of great aid to the staff in refining unit materials and in completing accompanying teacher guides. In this respect, the staff can concentrate on, and "rerun," relevant sections of the tapes for necessary close study. While initially the staff ran into some technical difficulties in using the equipment, the actual usefulness of the results far outweigh the minor -- and transient -- problems of poor technical quality. In brief, the videotaping experience emerged as perhaps the outstanding feature of the Winchester program; and the staff plans to continue next year taping classroom teaching of the Upper Grade Unit for use in more highly structured training conferences.

While Dr. Gibson and Mrs. Hilbert were testing materials in Medford and Winchester, another member of the working party, Mr. Frank Lyman, taught the Upper Grade Unit to his own fourth-grade class in an elementary school in Lexington, Massachusetts. Beginning early in the second semester, Mr. Lyman devoted a large block of time to the introductory section, and especially to the Indian subunit. Making use of Dr. Gibson's and Mrs. Hilbert's successful experiences with role-playing activities in the introductory section of the unit, Mr. Lyman devised similar activities for the Indian subunit. For example, role playing was applied to the study of the government structure of the Iroquois League. The children took the roles of several chiefs in turn, and applying the principles of the governing process under study, they acted out the settlement of land disputes. In another instance, to develop further awareness of the diversity that existed among the tribes, Mr. Lyman had several children act out short skits characterizing a particular trait of a specific tribe. The rest of the children were then to identify the tribe and activity being portrayed. One skit, for example, showed an auction to suggest the Kwakiutl custom of bidding for brides.

Perhaps the most valuable aspect of the Lexington program was the feedback Mr. Lyman's students provided through their written reactions to the unit. While it is premature to make any firm generalizations about actual attitude change, certain pleasing impressions do arise from the students' comments. The most often recorded response indicating a probable change of attitude is in relation to the Indians. The children now seem aware not only of wide differences among the various tribes, but also of the emptiness of the stereotypes they initially held.[2] In isolated cases there are clear indications of a more positive group concept for minority groups as well as a more positive self-concept for members of such groups.[3] Responses to a question about Negroes yield no easily definable patterns of affective change. There are, however, repeated answers that reveal the acquisition of much cognitive data on the history of the American Negro (concerning both the slave background and current conditions). Several responses indicate

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[2] The comments that follow are selections from those of Mr. Lyman's fourth-grade students at Lexington: (see next page)

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2 (cont.)

> I used to think all Indian tribes were the same. All tribes were warlike and were hostile until I found out about all the little things like discipline and customs of all the different tribes like the Zuni and the Kwakiutl. I thought all Indians were like on T.V.
>
> I've changed about the Indians. I thought they only wore war paint and had wars and everyone didn't like them.
>
> I thought that every Indian was a war Indian and stole our weapons to fight. Before I thought every tribe is like "pow wow" the Indian boy. But now I know that every tribe has a different way of thinking. Before I thought war was with every tribe. I thought every tribe was a tribe that chizzled weapons to fight. But I found out that tribes are very different in some ways and similar in other ways.
>
> My feelings and knowledge has changed toward the Indians. Before the discussion about them I thought that they were extinct and all they ever did was fight the white man. But now I know that they were farmers and hunters and they all had a different religion. There are many more different tribes than I knew of. You always think of how the cowboys think about Indians but did you (or I) ever think of how they feel toward white man. Actually hardly any of the Indians fight. I never knew the marriage systems. In fact I didn't even know if Zunis ever married. I never really thought of Indians and how they live. I still have some questions though.

[3] I thought my group wasn't great and [was] stinky. I wish I belong to another group but now I am proud of my group. I found

that as a result of the unit some children first became aware of the problems of minorities and particularly of the Negro. Also, some comments from other children suggest a probable reduction of stereotypic thinking about the Negro. It must be emphasized, however, that these observations are provisional findings, and it will be only after the evaluation staff has studied these and many other responses that we can draw final conclusions with any degree of certainty.

All of the people at the Center who were concerned with the Upper Grade Unit were pleased and encouraged by the results of the teaching tryouts. The Medford and Winchester teachers responsible for the classrooms in which Dr. Gibson and Mrs. Hilbert taught were also delighted with the progress of the project. Moreover, one teacher reported that during the course of a PTA meeting, a number of parents commented most favorably on their children's reports about the unit. Indeed, some parents of students at the Brooks School in Medford requested that the unit be presented to them. But perhaps the most encouragement we received from our own optimistic feelings about the value of the materials came from the enthusiasm of the students themselves.

We believe, in conclusion, that the students were excited about the materials,

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3 (cont.)

> out about my group in truth. A year ago I wish I was American but now I know nobody is really American. I always thought Americans were great. I know now Chinese are great Americans.

were acquiring skills for coping with patterns and conditions of diversity, were thinking about the adverse effect of negative and bigoted stereotypes, and were learning to relate conceptual principles to issues and problems of United States history.

2. Teaching in the Lowell Summer 1967 Title I Program

A seven-week day-camp, sponsored by the Lowell, Massachusetts, school system with Title I funding, was conducted during the summer of 1967 at two elementary schools in Lowell. The Upper Grade Unit was tried out at Camp Mogan (composed of 250 children entering the fourth through sixth grades), the Lower Grade Unit at Camp Pyne (composed of 250 children entering the first through third grades). For a more detailed description of the Title I project, and the history of its collaboration with the Center, please refer to Section II, C.3, Teaching the Lower Grade Unit in Lowell, p. 17.

Miss Jane Benson served as the liaison between the Lowell teachers, Miss Mary Lou Denning (the Lowell Title I Director), the evaluators, and Dr. Gibson. While co-ordinating the evaluation tryouts consumed a major part of her time, Miss Benson nevertheless concentrated as much time as possible on observing the actual teaching of the Upper Grade Unit at Camp Mogan. Travelling to Lowell two and three times each week, she observed classes and worked with teachers and Miss Denning in meetings regularly scheduled for discussing the progress and problems in the implementation of the Project materials.

The relatively short duration of the summer session and the difficulties inherent in the out-of-doors camp atmosphere of the summer school, as well as the teachers' relative unfamiliarity with the unit, led Miss Benson to advise that the teachers not attempt to cover too much material in the remaining weeks. Instead, she suggested that they focus on the four introductory principles, concentrating on continuous trial and revision of daily plans in relation to the introductory section. Miss Benson also encouraged all participating staff to keep running written records of class activities, lesson-plan successes and failures, and all recommendations for modifications and/or further development of the Upper Grade Unit.

The three upper-grade social studies teachers presented the project material to all two hundred and fifty children at Camp Mogan. The Lowell administration divided the children into squads of ten, and during each of the five class periods, the teachers usually met with three squads. While the teachers saw most squads only twice a week, they met with one group of twenty children every morning for an hour. This time was designated as the "choice period." The children (called "Pegs," for "People Equals Government") in this special group chose social studies as the activity to which they would like to devote extra time. Because the teachers saw these children each day, this group was the focus for the teaching of the Upper Grade Unit. Moreover, all upper grade evaluation tryouts were made with this group. The three content aides assigned to the social studies team taught in addition to the regular teachers, so that for each class, one teacher or aide could work with small groups of five to ten students.[4] Daily morning planning sessions afforded a constant exchange of ideas among the teachers and aides, and after each day the success and failure of plans were reviewed. In-service training provided additional time for the teachers to elaborate trial plans.

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[4] The teachers and aides in the upper-grade social studies team approached the tryout of project materials with enthusiasm. Despite the fact that they had been unable to examine the material extensively prior to the opening of the camp, the teachers were highly aware of the need for the development of instructional materials in the area of human relations and were eager to aid the Center through their own experimental teaching of the Upper Grade Unit.

The student and teacher response to the beginning material of the unit, the governing process, was extremely favorable. The teachers felt that this was perhaps the strongest part of the unit, because the students could relate easily to the concepts of "rulers" and "ruled," policy, and affecting policy in terms of concrete personal experiences. Also, several learning activities related to the present camp situation grew out of the governing process section. After completing the policy-making sheet included in the introductory material (see Upper Grade Unit Content, The Governing Process, p.4), the students and teachers devised a second policy-making sheet oriented toward decision making at Camp Mogan. Similarly, as an in-class activity, the students discovered through discussion what policies were essential to the effective running of Camp Mogan. Then the children constructed posters which the staff displayed throughout the school to define individual camp policies for all the campers. (This same activity could certainly be used in a regular school situation.) Additionally, to make the children more immediately aware of the governing process of the city, the teachers devised a governing process model for Lowell.[5]

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[5] Two of the teachers are expanding the city model into a separate subunit on Lowell utilizing the four major principles of the introductory section of the unit.

The teachers also designed new learning activities to complement the trilogy material in the introductory section. They collected a series of detailed, integrated urban pictures showing people engaged in diverse activities. These pictures were first used as a basis for class discussion to determine what all the people had in common. The students then chose their own pictures and wrote short papers describing how all the people in the pictures were the same. The teachers devised new techniques to involve the students actively in learning the more difficult concept that all people are different in some way. For example, to induce understanding of individual differences, selected students were asked to write the same sentence on the board. Students then compared the handwriting and concluded that each student had a unique writing style. Similar experiments were conducted to illustrate uniqueness of voice, thumbprints, footprints, size, and the like.

Throughout the course, the Peg campers compiled their own notebooks basing the content on in-class activities and individual ideas.[6] The teachers designed additional activities to supplement the existing Upper Grade Unit, but were not able to refine and implement the activities during the short camp term. The suggestions, nevertheless, are valuable for future teaching tryouts, and the activities are included in the section, "Teacher Recommendations for Further Development of Material."

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[6] For further description of the notebook-textbook scheme, see pp. 2-3.

The summer teaching of the Upper Grade Unit was not without its problems, however. In retrospect, many of the difficulties should have been expected as natural outgrowths of the necessarily complex camp organization. The other social studies classes met twice and sometimes only once a week. The teachers understandably found it almost impossible to maintain any sense of continuity with these children, but did feel that this problem could be remedied in a regular classroom situation. Likewise, the teachers felt that the informality of the camp environment sometimes hampered the efficient development of the unit. For instance, it was troublesome for the children to complete certain writing or construction activities outside, and the outdoors provided innumerable distractions that unfortunately could not always be related to the unit lesson.

The pacing of the unit with the "choice group" went awry because of unanticipated scheduling difficulties,[7] but perhaps more particularly because the teachers seemed to feel more at ease with the early phases of the introductory section (such as the governing process and part of the trilogy). This tendency of the teachers to favor familiar material at the expense of less familiar, though equally important, material indicates the need for intensive development of further teaching aids.

The hurried orientation that the teachers received before beginning their teaching was clearly inadequate for them to deal with the unit material as it now stands. Not only did we fail to develop in them a confidence in the subject matter, but also we misjudged the complex problem of the teachers' personal confrontations with questions of prejudice and stereotypic thinking. The teachers could not seem to resolve their feelings with the unit material. They felt, for example, that they were "teaching differences," by which they seemed to mean that they were creating in the children an undesirable awareness of unimportant distinctions. Thus, while the Center staff are working on the premise that diversity in terms of race, religion, national origin, and behavior is one of the most positive and healthy advantages of American life, the project material, as it now stands, fails to clarify this principle, which is so fundamental to the successful teaching of the unit.

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[7] The "choice group" was not finalized until the end of the third week of camp, and several campers joined even later in the summer.

Finally, the observations of the Misses Anderson, Benson, and Denning indicated that the teachers frequently did not engage in an inductive teaching approach with the material. Certainly the inadequate orientation and the brevity of the camp session could not have provided the teachers who were unfamiliar with this technique with the necessary time for understanding and practising it.

Recommendations for Teacher Training

The problems reviewed above are by no means blocks to progress in the development of the Upper Grade Unit. On the contrary, with the identification of these problems come new and varied alternatives to approaching our goals. Consequently, the Title I Director and the Lowell Upper Grade teachers believe that the following recommendations are essential to the continuing development of the program:

1. Need for intensive in-service or pre-service teacher conferences.

These conferences should provide human relations seminars or some form of sensitivity training in order to explore problems of teachers' personal confrontations with racial and cultural diversity. The conferences should also include actual demonstrations of inductive teaching.

2. Need for more complete teacher manuals.

The introduction to the teachers' manual should include research background and concrete explanations of the project's behavioral goals. The manual must also provide more complete teacher guidelines for approaching the four major concepts in the introductory section of the unit. The guidelines should include explicit explanations of the purpose of each lesson plan in relation to the broad project goals. Finally, the Center staff should consider developing a supplementary teaching manual designed specifically for teachers of urban disadvantaged youth. This manual would include adaptations of existing lesson plans, supplementary lesson plans and activities to combat verbal problems, and specific directions for small group work.[8]

3b. Teacher Recommendations for Further Development of Material

The Center is always receptive to new ideas, and especially from those who have had the experience of teaching the project material. Indeed, the prime advantage of keeping the content flexible during the actual process of curriculum development, rather than establishing a rigid set of prescribed lessons before any teaching trials occur, is that the staff can evaluate the teaching feedback for immediate incorporation into the unit or for future development and refinement of the material. The Lowell teachers are currently providing just this kind of valuable information.

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[8] For a description of the Center's proposals to meet these needs in the coming year, see the Project proposal for additional funding of 30 August, 1967.

Many of the teachers' recommendations arose from activities they were able to try out with the students during the summer (see p. 11). Also, more general observations and suggestions for modifications of the structure of the unit, as well as recommendations for specific supplementation of the present content, came directly from the teachers' experience during the summer. In some cases, however, the teachers were not able to take their experimental ideas into the class situation. They did, nevertheless, formulate specific recommendations, and they began work on their own supplementary lesson plans during designated in-service planning time. Currently, the teachers continue to work on these plans and will be submitting them to the Center staff for study in the following weeks.

The selections below indicate the scope of the Lowell teachers' recommendations.

1. Need for more explanation of procedure in the lesson plans of the introductory section of the unit, with the addition of transitional plans

into each new section (in this respect, the teachers felt that continuity was especially lacking between the governing process and the trilogy sections).

2. Need for the inclusion of additional governing process concepts in the introductory section of the unit.

Primarily, the teachers felt that it was essential to emphasize the idea of self-governing in relation to the concepts of the "rulers" and the "ruled." Moreover, two Lowell teachers are now planning lessons to concentrate on the voting process as one concrete means of affecting policy. Part of their work includes a three-stage governing process diagram to illustrate this concept.

3. Need for revision of the written student material in the Indian subunit.

Time did not allow the Lowell teachers to concentrate on the teaching of the Indian subunit, but after limited tryouts, the teachers felt that the material required much revision. The vocabulary, for example, in their judgment was often too difficult for the children.

4. Need for more learning activities to accompany the unit.

The Lowell teachers have already responded to this need by suggesting various activities. One teacher, for example, suggested the use of large wall murals to complement the study of different Indian tribes. The mural is to be divided into sections for each tribe. As the subunit progresses, students place ideas, drawings, and diagrams on the mural to illustrate, visually, comparisons of the tribes. The mural could be of particular value in supplementing or even replacing the comparative chart currently used, especially for children of low verbal abilities (see item 3, above).

Another teacher submitted a concrete proposal for dramatizations of student attempts to affect policy in the school. Among themselves, the children decide the policy they would like to see changed, and the precise methods they might employ to achieve the change. Children are then assigned the various appropriate administrative and student roles (superintendent, principal, board of education, etc.), and they proceed to dramatize the planned procedure for affecting the policy. The remaining children would participate by evaluating the present policy, the proposed changes, and the methods employed for achieving the changes.

Conclusion

The summer was a demanding, but certainly rewarding, experience for the Lowell teachers and the Center staff involved with the project materials in the Lowell Title I program. As indicated, the problems encountered have revealed numerous areas of concern to be concentrated upon during the coming year. Again, it must be emphasized that the recommendations of the teachers have become an invaluable source of information for refining the Upper Grade Unit.

Several Lowell teachers have expressed the desire to try out parts of the Unit (frequently in conjunction with their own new lesson plans) in their classrooms this fall. The Center staff will be most interested in the reactions of the teachers to the unit after their second experience with the material, this time in a normal classroom situation. The Center plans to provide any needed assistance to the teachers using the materials, and we trust that close co-operation between the Center staff and the Lowell teachers will continue in order to further the development of instructional materials and teaching strategies in the area of race and culture in American life.

Upper Grade Unit Lesson Plans
Developed by
Lowell Title I Project Teachers

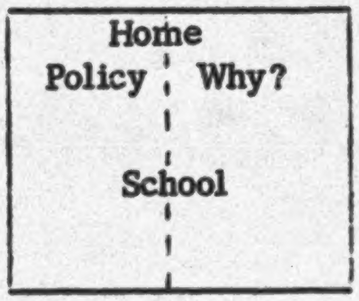
Suggestions for People Equals Government Notebook *

1. Draw diagrams showing the governing process at home, school, camp, city, state, and nation.

2. Draw diagrams in which the person ruled becomes the ruler.

3. Make a list of all the rulers you know.

4. Make a list of the different policies at home, school, camp, city, state, nation, and any other place where you think there are policies you should know.



Draw a line down the center of the page and write the reason for the policy on the other side of the line.

5. ASSIGNMENT

   Find newspaper articles showing government deciding policies in the city, state, and nation.

6. Complete the "Policy-making" sheets and put the sheets in your notebook.

7. "All the people are the same." List all the things that are the same about people.

8. "Some people are different." List all the things that are different about people.

9. "All people are different." List things that make people individually different. List the things that are always different and are never the same for all people.

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* The following enclosures are sample lesson-plans that the Lowell upper-grade teachers devised during their summer teaching. For additional description of lesson-plans and class activities utilized at Camp Mogan, see Section III C. pp. 11 - 12.

Policy Making 2

Do you decide for yourself:	Yes	No	Who?
1. Where to go for choice period?			
2. When to get up in the morning?			
3. When to be quiet at camp?			
4. When to go swimming?			
5. Which squad to be in?			
6. What colors to use in a picture?			
7. How to spell your name?			
8. When to use an eraser?			
9. When to go to eat?			
10. What to eat for dinner?			
11. What people to play with?			
12. What games to play?			
13. To obey the rules?			
14. To come to Social Studies?			
15. To chop down a tree?			
16. To smile?			
17. To get angry?			
18. When to come in from the rain?			
19. When to cross the street?			
20. When to do homework?			

Social Studies Lesson Plan

All People Are the Same

1. OBJECTIVE - To have the children realize that in many ways all people are the same.

2. METHOD - a) Review previous lessons first to relax the children and to reinforce previous lessons.

b) Introduce the concept of sameness in all the things around us (as in flowers, animals, and mechanical devices.) Then have children determine the sameness they may notice among themselves and their teachers, other students, and the people they observe in situation photographs. Then have children apply the idea of sameness to all people.

c) Conclude the lesson by having children, either individually or in small groups, list on paper the things they feel are the same in all people.

After they have compiled a list of sameness about people, have them read their lists. Children may, at this time, check their lists and add to them if they wish.

End the lesson with a review of the concept that all people are the same in some ways.

Social Studies Lesson Plan

Some People Are Different

1. OBJECTIVE - To introduce the concept that "Some people are different."

2. METHOD - Review the lesson on "All people are the same." Now children should be asked how some things, again plants, animals, and mechanical devises, are the same but are also different.

As in the previous lesson, the children can be asked how they are different from each other, their squad leader or their teacher.

Then ask the children to list some of these different things they notice with reference to the idea that some people are different. Then have children make lists --as in the previous lesson.

End lesson by having children read and cross check their lists. This is done so that the children can add to or change their lists.

Social Studies Lesson Plan

All People Are Different

1. OBJECTIVE - To have the children realize that all people are, in some ways, different and that this gives each person his individuality.

2. METHOD - Review lessons on sameness and "Some people are different," to insure that these two concepts are understood by the children.

   Then introduce the concept that all people are different.

   Here again a discussion of plants, animals, and mechanized devices, can be useful. Again the children can compare themselves to the people around them to find things that make them different in only one way.

   This then should be discussed in relation to all the people in the world. Next, have children list the differences discussed.

   End lesson by reviewing earlier lists of sameness and differences that the children have made.

Social Studies Lesson Plan

Ideal and Reality

1. OBJECTIVE - To have the children begin to realize that there is a difference between the "real" and the "ideal."

2. METHOD - a) Review of "sameness and differences" concepts.

b) Break class into small groups.

c) Say, "If you could change places with anybody in the world right now, what person would you choose?" "Why?" (This is one way to look at the "ideal.")

d) Talk for a few minutes about dreams and daydreams.

(i) Could these things happen?

e) Inductively, try to draw frim the children meanings of the following words:

(i) reality
(ii) imagination
(iii) ideal

f) Get the students' ideas of the world as they would like it to be. (Ideal)

g) Get their thoughts on the world as it is. (Reality)

h) Proceed to governing process diagrams demonstrating the real and ideal (as outlined on pp. 3-4 of Upper Grade Unit, Content, Ideal and Reality.)

CONCLUSION - The ideal can sometimes be achieved but reality is often far removed from the ideal.

D. UPPER GRADE UNIT BIBLIOGRAPHY

Introduction

The bibliographies that follow provide references for materials to aid in the study of two upper grade subunits, the American Indians and the Declaration of Independence. The bibliographies for students suggest books that could be collected for a classroom resource library to supplement the content of the subunits. The teacher bibliographies indicate a variety of sources that were utilized in the writing of the subunits. The bibliographies are not complete but are intended to serve as useful guidelines for the teacher's own exploration of the subject areas.[1]

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[1] For background materials related to the broader area of racial and cultural diversity and democratic human relations, see V. PROJECT BIBLIOGRAPHY.

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IV. EVALUATION

PROGRESS REPORT OF EVALUATION ACTIVITIES: SUMMER 1967

Dr. Helen J. Kenney

in collaboration with

Barbara W. Harris
Kenneth Weene
Mildred McIntyre
Rosalyn Miller

Dates: July 5, 1967, to August 18, 1967

Preface

The general purpose of the summer evaluation program was to develop and try out evaluation procedures related to the two curricula which embody the instructional materials and teaching strategies on race and culture in America at the elementary school level. From July 5 to August 18, 1967, the evaluation team designed and tried out materials and procedures with children in what we came to call the Lower Grade Unit (grades 1 - 3) and the Upper Grade Unit (grades 4 - 6).

The work of the summer was truly collaborative in the sense that no one individual was entirely responsible for any one aspect of the over-all evaluation program. As the director of evaluation, I was assisted by an able, imaginative, and concerned staff who worked directly with me on the development of evaluation materials and procedures, coding schemes, tabulation and analysis of data. However, the guiding rationale of the program of evaluation and the final synthesis of findings, with whatever shortcomings there might be, are mine alone.

Although we co-operated as a team, certain specific contributions of various staff members should be mentioned. Mrs. Barbara W. Harris provided imaginative ideas for the content and format of the interviews and the stereotype-sorting test. Mr. Kenneth Weene supplied fresh insights into the coded data emanating from the pre- and post-responses of children to the sentence-completion instrument in the three Medford (Massachusetts) schools where the Upper Grade Unit was presented in the spring of 1967. His reflections on these data have resulted in a proposed revision of the sentence-completion instrument which had been used to determine stereotypic thinking regarding selected groups among elementary school children. Miss Mildred McIntyre contributed particularly to the development of a practical scheme for interpreting children's drawings to be used by teachers in the regualr classroom. Throughout the entire project, Miss Rosalyn Miller ably assisted in coding, tabulating, and graphing the information derived from the various evaluaation procedures.

Of course, it would not have been possible to accomplish anything without the assistance and co-operation of the teachers and the students in the summer classes in Brookline and Lowell. While we were fortunate in being able to try out the early interviews with children in the Lower Grade Unit at the Heath School, in Brookline, the bulk of the work was done at Lowell in the summer program operating under ESEA Title I.

Special recognition of the co-operation of the teachers who worked under the capable direction of Miss Mary Lou Denning, Title I Coordinator in Lowell (Massachusetts), must be noted. Finally, the competence of Miss Jane B. Benson in co-ordinating the activities of the evaluation staff with the ongoing summer school programs provided the stable framework within which it was possible to carry out the program of evaluation.

Helen J. Kenney
Director of Evaluation

A. RATIONALE AND GENERAL DESIGN

A. RATIONALE AND GENERAL DESIGN

Some General Guidelines of Evaluation[1]

The "problem of evaluation," as viewed in this project, is how to assess practically the impact of a particular "course" on pupils. Conventional after-the-fact evaluation -- whether, for example, a course has accomplished its task - is not the principal concern, although this kind of information is an automatic by-product of the approach taken to the matter of evaluation. Rather, the issue is how to obtain information about the children's predispositions and reactions early enough in the process of curriculum building to provide the curriculum builders with "feedback in real time," at a time and in a form to help in the design of methods and materials.

In other words, evaluation is viewed as a type of instructional research in the form of educational intelligence to provide guidance for curriculum construction and pedagogy. Moreover, evaluation is most effectively carried on when there is a complete cadre at work: the curriculum planner, the teacher, the evaluator, and the pupils.

Finally, it is believed that the most relevant procedures for the more conventional pre- and post-auditing of what a student learns as a result of a course of study will be produced by evaluation approaches which examine not only the product or content of learning but also the process by which the child succeeds or fails to master that which is to be learned.

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[1] This approach to evaluation was originated by Dr. Jerome S. Bruner in the course of his work with the ESI Elementary Social Studies Curriculum in the summer of 1964.

The Design of the Evaluation Procedures

General Aims

As a beginning toward a comprehensive system of evaluation techniques, a number of procedures have been devised to focus on a particularly relevant dimension of behavior for the concerns of the present curriculum, namely, prejudice in children. To delimit what is a highly complex form of human behavior, it seemed desirable to concentrate at the outset on selected aspects of prejudice, namely, stereotyped thinking regarding selected groups and the beginning tendencies of children to be exclusive and intolerant in their behavior and attitudes toward what they define as "other" groups. This beginning tendency was to be measured primarily in terms of the social and physical distance a child wishes to maintain between himself and members of other groups.

Evaluation Techniques: Upper Grade

1. Stereotype-Sorting Exercise. This technique is an adaptation of typical tests determining a subject's stereotypes of various groups by way of adjective attribution to selected minority, racial, ethnic, cultural groups. The data should reveal actual stereotypes of certain groups; specificity of stereotypes; and the social distance which a child places between himself and members of

selected groups. (This was determined by a ranking test built into the sorting exercise). This test differed from the conventional tests, however, in the following ways: its vocabulary was modified for the age level involved; its form was changed into a sorting rather than a written test to ensure maximum involvement and interest on the part of the child by avoiding what is often viewed as a tiresome task, namely, "writing"; and a ranking test was included to determine the children's order of preference for selected groups.

2. Children's Drawings. The students were asked to do the same series of drawings as the lower grade students; i.e., three sets of drawings through which a child may project some elements of how he is perceiving members of groups different from the one he considers "his group." A more detailed description of this procedure will be given later in connection with the Lower Grade Unit for which it was expressly designed.

3. Sentence-Completion Measure. A sentence-completion instrument was used to determine stereotypic thinking regarding selected groups and to discover the basic conceptions that children have with respect to some general topics and concepts involved in the curriculum (e.g., government, slums, etc.).

Evaluation Techniques: Lower Grade

Evaluation techniques at this level are generally restricted by the inability of children of this age to handle exercises requiring extensive ability to read or write. The techniques evolved, therefore, consisted of (1) oral interviews and (2) drawings or art work done by the children.

1. Oral Interviews. a) Interview I: "Debriefing." This interview tells us how much children of this age are "aware" of "other groups", of groups "different" from themselves; how the children are defining "different from;" what they consider their own peer group (i.e., the identity of what they consider their own group and the identity of "other" groups); and how much, if any, awareness of other groups is beginning to shade over into prejudice. (i. e., how much "differentness" becomes a signal for intolerance.)

The interview was designed to be relatively open so as to give as much information as possible about an area in which relatively little is known; age levels when children become aware of and attach importance to groups and group differences.

b) Interview II: "Story Completion." This interview is more directed. It presents the child with a series of pictures of children who are visibly different from themselves (Negroes, Orientals, etc.). Using a story developed around this series of pictures, the child is asked to fill in the story at critical points in response to questions designed primarily to see the following: how much importance he is already attaching to physical differences; how much he is already automatically suspicious of or frightened by such differences; and how many negative (or affirmative) connotations or implications he is now attaching to these differences.

c) Interview III: "Color Preference." This interview provides background material for the interpretation of the children's drawings and supplementary material to reveal to what extent color connotations may be affecting a child's attitude toward members of groups visibly different from his own in color.

2. Children's Drawings. This evaluative technique consisted of a series of drawings through which it was thought a child would project some elements of how he is perceiving minority groups. The technique is practical in the sense that it requires less personnel and thus might be more feasible in school situations where personnel and time for individual interviews present a problem; it fits in naturally with the ongoing curriculum and classroom activities; it is directed, since it requires specific information from the child and yet is open in that the child is given freedom to express the types and amounts of information which he feels are relevant; and, finally, it removes the possible unintentional bias of interviewer or written questions.

B. THE EVALUATION MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

B. THE EVALUATION MATERIALS AND PROCEDURES

In this section, the specific materials and procedures used at each unit level will be described. The sample will be self-explanatory in most instances, but there will be interpolated commentary at various points to provide necessary background for the understanding of the report of preliminary findings to be discussed in the next section.

First, let us consider the procedures used with the Upper Grade Level.

1. Stereotype-Sorting Exercise. This procedure is described in highly specific detail in Exhibit A which follows. The twenty-four adjectives constituting a single set, each of which was typed on a separate card and from which the child made his selections for each group to be placed in a colored envelope, are classified as follows:

Affirmative

Differentiated

- Clean and neat
- Fun to be with
- Good sport
- Hard working
- Has guts
- Honest
- Polite
- Smart
- Thinks up good ideas

Undifferentiated

- (depends on frame of reference)
- Rich
- Nice

Negative

Differentiated

- Bad
- Dirty
- Dumb
- Fights a lot
- Lazy
- Money crazy
- Noisy
- Show-off
- Troublemaker
- Ugly
- Tries to take over and run things

Undifferentiated

- (depends on frame of reference)
- Poor
- Not very nice

Exhibit B is the recording sheets for each sorting completed by a child and the final ranking of groups (cf. p.3 of the "Procedure Sheet for Sorting Exercise" for specific directions for the ranking of groups.)

Exhibit C is a sample set of cards.

2. Drawings. The list of drawings to be used for evaluation appears as Exhibit D. In the first tryouts at the Heath School, only A, B, and C in each set were done. However, the opportunity for getting a child's perceptions of school in relation to himself and others seemed too good to miss, so that D and E were added in the Lowell trials.

The criteria for evaluation will be described in connection with the Lower Grade Unit, since the older children were not able to produce a sufficient number of drawings for evaluation.

3. Sentence-Completion Measure. The instrument used in the pre- and post-auditing of the three Medford (Massachusetts) schools during the spring of 1967 yielded the data which will be presented and discussed in the section on findings. The instrument as administered at that time is given as Exhibit E.

Here, the coding scheme developed for the open-ended items in Part I will be described. Findings from Part II of the measure will be considered also in the section on preliminary findings.

The coding scheme for Part I is shown as Exhibit F. The code was developed from an examination of the total pre-and post-audit responses of the 75 Medford school children who completed either or both audits. In short, we have an exhaustive coding scheme for the data available at the present time. Specific responses were numbered from 01 to 50 (on selected groups #1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, 11) to permit for potential data processing. These 50 responses were grouped according to the following categories (see pp. 1-2 of the code book for specifics):

A. Undifferentiated - Generalizing - Global Descriptions

B. Physical Attributes - Geographical Factors

C. Cultural - Food, Religion, Language

D. Economic Characteristics

E. Personal Characteristics, Positive or Neutral

F. Personal Characteristics, Negative

G. Political (omitted because of so few responses, merged with D)

H. Social - Victimized, Put Upon

Response to Item 3, What is a Government?, #7 What is a Slum?, #8 Why do People Live in Slums?, #13 What Makes a Good Family? were also categorized as indicated in the code book. Responses to items 10, 12, 14 did not appear to cluster, so they were left as discrete items for coding purposes.

We turn now to the materials and procedures used with the Lower Grade Unit.

1. Oral Interviews. An interview manual (Exhibit G) for the Lower Grade Unit was prepared to furnish background notes on the purposes of the interviews, and notes on the techniques of conducting and recording the interview. Although there appears to be some specificity in the present version because of the focus on Negroes, in

actuality, any group as a group could be substituted in place of Negroes.

Interview I, "Debriefing," was tried out at the Heath School, Brookline, with six children. The original guide (Exhibit H) contained the following questions about Negroes (cf. Interview Guide: Part I):

1. Have you ever had a Negro friend? If yes, how close was the relationship?

2. Have you ever had a Negro neighbor? If yes, what was the nature of the relationship? Was he an adult or some one your own age?

3. Have you ever had a Negro classmate or teacher? How close was the relationship, and the child's impression of the Negro?

4. What Negroes besides the ones you have already talked about (questions 1-3) do you know?

5. Do you ever see Negroes around? For example, in your neighborhood, while shopping with your mother at the grocery store, at the movies, while with your parents downtown, on the playgrounds, just on the streets? When you see them, what are they doing? Do they seem nice or not too nice?

6. Do you ever see Negroes on T.V.? Baseball or sports players? Negro newscasters? Singers or dancers? Comedians? In stories like I Spy or other plays? Do you ever watch the news? What are they doing? Do they seem nice or not too nice?

In addition, one question (cf. p.2 of the Interview Guide) asked a general question about groups of people who may be different from one another.

It is worth noting at this point that the question with best yield in terms of meaningful material appears to be this general question about the child's perception of groups of people who may be different from the one to which he perceives himself as belonging. We suggest that further use of this particular debriefing with young children include this type of question rather than ones centering on specific groups.

Interview II, "Story Completion, "is fully described in Exhibit I. The actual picture materials accompanying the telling of the story could not be reproduced for the report, but some idea of the general format may be gained from the numbered outlines given the teacher to aid in recording the child's selections from each picture (Exhibit J). It should be noted that Picture 1, although it is exhibited on two separate sheets, actually appeared on one large piece of colored construction paper.

The answer sheet is part of the interview guide itself.

Interview III, "Color Preference, " was brief and to the point. Directions to the teacher, the questions, and a recording section for color ranking are shown in Exhibit K.

2. Children's Drawings. The last major source of evaluative data was the children's drawings. These have already been described in Exhibit D and require no further elaboration in relation to what the children were asked to draw. But a brief description of the rationale underlying this procedure and of the evaluative criteria that have been tentatively worked out is appropriate at this point.

The idea of using children's drawings to discover something of their feelings and thoughts about racial, ethnic, and cultural groups different from theirs came from the work of Robert Coles, who has written extensively about the civil rights movement in the North and South. Of particular interest to the present project is Coles's interest in what children tell about themselves with crayons and paints. In Children of Crisis[1] he describes how he used the drawings of children who were going through a period of extreme stress in their lives. These were the young Negro children in New Orleans whose entry into the white schools during the first two years of desegregation precipitated strenuous objections of mobs and a boycott by most white children. While Coles's immediate interest was to derive insights from the drawings of these children into the ways these children were managing the social and personal trials of desegregation, he suggests a more far-reaching concern regarding children's drawings as a technique for appraising growth, development, intelligence, and psychological status. He points out sharply, however, the substantial limitations in the present state of knowledge regarding interpretations and analyses of drawings whether done by children or adults. In the light of the empirical evidence currently available, it appears that valid analyses of drawings can be made only if a large number of them are obtained from a child over an extended period of time and if the child is given an opportunity to talk about what he draws. In other words, drawings constitute one source of data which have relevance when co-ordinated with other kinds of information.

Similarly, empirical studies which have been made of the Draw-a-Person Test and other projective drawing devices indicated in general that the usefulness of drawings is complemented by other evaluation procedures and methods and by background knowledge and understanding of the individual drawing the figures.[2]

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[1] Robert Coles, Children of Crisis Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1967, Chapter III, passim.

In the present instance, the attempt to use children's drawings as a way of learning something of their racial attitudes was frankly exploratory. It certainly seemed worth while to take advantage of material that children so abundantly and willingly produce and to do it in such a way that the regular classroom teacher could make direct instructional application of whatever could be learned from the study of these drawings. The general orientation was to develop evaluative criteria in terms of the perspective of a psychologist viewing the drawings rather than that of an artist. It is clear from previous studies that there is a near-zero correlation between the ratings of psychologists and the ratings of artists in relation to the artistic quality of a drawing. The psychologist is typically interested in the extent to which a drawing represents the reality of what is depicted; the artist is primarily concerned with balance, symmetry, freedom of expression, and esthetic appeal.[3] Looking at these differing conceptions of artistic quality in another way, one could say that the psychologist rates quality of drawing in terms of the more technical or objective aspects of the production. This approach appears to make the best sense in developing scoring schemes which could be used by teachers easily and without the help of outside specialists.

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[2] Bernard I. Murstein, ed. Handbook of Projective Techniques, New York: Basic Books, 1965, p. 679.

[3] Ibid, p. 669.

As a first approximation of a feasible scoring system, the following criteria were selected to be applied to the small sample of drawings obtained during the summer program:

1. Degree of attention and care, as evidenced in color and line
2. Relationship of elements in the picture, e.g., figures in relation to buildings, other figures, etc.
3. Relative size of figures
4. Relative amount of detail
5. Subject matter

It was hoped that these criteria would provide a reasonable way to categorize and classify the children's drawings in order to yield some useful insights into their perceptions of group differences.

In summary, an attempt was made to achieve the general aims of evaluation by way of oral and written responses taken together with children's drawings. What these techniques yielded in relation to the major questions of this initial phase of evaluation -- the extent of stereotypic thinking in children and the beginning signs and symptoms of intolerance toward people who are different -- will be considered in the next section.

Exhibit A

Upper Grade Unit

Procedure Sheet for Stereotype Sorting Exercise

Exhibit A

PROCEDURE SHEET FOR STEREOTYPE SORTING EXERCISE

Materials

8 colored envelopes (2 1/2" x 6") for each child

8 sets of sorting cards (2 2" x 4" cards per set) for each child

1 magic marker for each child

1 large envelope (10"x 13") with child's name on it for each child

1 large box or shopping bag to be used as container for all unused cards

1 large cardboard display sheet listing the 8 different groups

Rubber bands

Introducing exercise to children

Make this introduction in your own words: "The history of our country is different from that of many countries. It was settled by many, many different groups of people. You will be studying many of these groups. Some of them are groups from different countries, of different religions, of different skin colors, of different languages, customs, and ways of doing things. Now before we study these groups, I'd like to know what your ideas are about some of these groups. I'm going to pass out some materials which you will use in telling me what your ideas are about the groups I have listed on this big piece of cardboard."

Note to Teacher. Try to avoid any possible bias in the children's sorting through suggesting or intimating in any way that tolerance toward or a favorable attitude toward other groups is desired by the teacher. For example, by suggesting themes such as "These many groups had to learn to get along together." "It is good for a person to learn to see the good in the people in the groups different from his own," etc.

Procedure

I. Sorting

1. Display the cardboard listing the groups so the students can see it.

2. Give each child:

    1 magic marker
    1 colored envelope
    1 set of cards

(Note: Give each child only 1 colored envelope and 1 set of cards at a time.)

3. Tell the child to look through the set of cards and choose those which he thinks describe the first group listed (i.e., Irish).

4. After he has completed this tell the child:

    a. to put his chosen cards in the colored envelope

    b. to write the name of the group on the colored envelope with the magic marker

5. Next tell the child to put his unused cards in the large shopping bag or box. (This should be centrally placed or placed near teacher).

6. When the child finishes this sort, have him bring the colored envelope containing his chosen cards to the teacher.

7. The teacher will first check to see that the colored envelope is labeled and then will put a rubber band around it (IMPORTANT).

8. The teacher will place the colored envelope in a large envelope on which she will write the student's name. (All the student's following sorts will be placed in this same envelope).

9. The teacher will then give the child another set of cards and a colored envelope which he will use for his second sort, (i.e., English).

10. This procedure is to be followed by each child through the first 7 sorts -- that is, Irish, English, Negroes, Americans, Italians, Jews, Puerto Ricans.

11. When the child is ready to do his eighth and last sort -- i.e., FRIEND -- the teacher will instruct him to look through the

cards and choose the qualities he would like to have in a friend. (He will then label the colored envelope, etc., just as he has done with the preceding 7 sorts).

12. The teacher can check off on each child's large envelope the name of each group as he hands the sort in. In this way she will have a running tally on where he stands in the sorting.

II. Ranking

1. When a child has finished all 8 sorts, the teacher will take the child's first 7 labeled color envelopes; that is, all the envelopes except that labeled FRIEND.
2. The teacher will spread the colored envelopes out so that the child can see all the labels.
3. The teacher will ask the child to choose the group he likes best.
4. The teacher will then
    a. remove that colored envelope from the rest
    b. mark the number of his choice (that is, 1)
    c. replace it in the large envelope with the child's name.
5. The teacher will then ask the child what his next favorite group is and proceed as with his first choice.
6. This procedure is to be repeated until the child has ranked all 7 groups.

Note. Try to avoid as much as possible letting the other students hear the way a student is doing the ranking.

Important

Please check to see that each colored envelope is labeled when the student brings it to you.

Be sure each colored envelope has a rubber band around it before it is placed in the child's large envelope. This will prevent the cards from spilling out and getting mixed together.

Please remember to write the rank number on each colored envelope before returning it to the large envelope during the child's ranking of groups.

Exhibit B

Upper Grade Unit

Code Sheet for Stereotype Sorting Exercise

Exhibit B

Stereotype Sorting Exercise - Code Sheet

Name:

Control Group: Friend **Subjective Affirmative Attributes:** **Subjective Negative Attributes:**

___Bad

___Clean and neat

___Dirty

___Dumb

___Fights a lot

___Fun to be with

___Good sport

___Hard working

___Has guts

___Honest

___Lazy

___Money crazy

___Nice

___Noisy

___Not very nice

Control Group: Friend	Subjective Affirmative Attributes:	Subjective Negative Attributes:
___Polite		
___Poor		
___Rich		
___Show-off		
___Smart		
___Thinks up good ideas		
___Tries to take over		
___Troublemaker		
___Ugly		

Group:

No. of Positive Attributes: ____________

No. of Negative Attributes: ____________

Rank Awarded Group: ____________

No. of Attributes Used: ____________

___Bad

___Clean and neat

___Dirty

___Dumb

___Fights a lot

___Fun to be with

___Good sport

___Hard working

___Has guts

___Honest

___Lazy

___Money crazy

___Nice

___Noisy

___Not very nice

___Polite

___Poor

___Rich

___Show-off

___Smart

___Thinks up good ideas

___Tries to take over

___Troublemaker

___Ugly

Ranking of Groups:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

Exhibit C

Upper Grade Unit

Sorting Cards for Stereotype Sorting Exercise

Nice	Hard-working
Show-off	Fights a lot
Polite	Honest
Troublemaker	Not very nice
Noisy	Smart

Poor	Good sport
Lazy	Has guts
Money crazy	Bad
Clean and Neat	Dirty
Thinks up good ideas	Tries to take over and run things

Rich	Dumb
Fun to be with	Ugly

Exhibit D

Upper and Lower Grade Units

Children's Perceptions of Minority Groups As Seen Through Their Drawings

Exhibit D

Children's Perceptions of Minority Groups As Seen Through Their Drawings

Upper Grade and Lower Grade Units

Drawings of:

I. A. The child himself (me) at home

B. The child's own (my) father at work

C. The child (me) doing something I like to do

D. The child himself (me) at school

E. The child himself (me) with my classmates at school

II. A. A friend of the child (a friend of mine) at home

B. The child's friend's (my friend's) father at work

C. The child's friend (my friend) doing something he (she) likes to do

D. The child's friend (my friend) at school

E. The child's friend with his (her) classmates at school

III. A. A little Negro boy (girl) at home

B. A little Negro boy's (girl's) father at work

C. A little Negro boy (girl) doing something he (she) likes to do

D. A little Negro boy (girl) at school

E. A little Negro boy (girl) with his (her) classmates at school

NOTE:

Drawings should be done in sets (e.g. I, II, III). Child might do one or two or more drawings at a time. Drawings can be continuous throughout program; they shouldn't be done all at one sitting. If a child says "doesn't know," encourage him to draw what he thinks it might be.

Exhibit E

Upper Grade Unit

Sentence Completion Instrument

Exhibit E

Sentence Completion Instrument

Part One

Please write your answers according to the way you feel. This is not a test. Do not worry about spelling. Answer as quickly as you can.

1. Most Negroes ____

____

____

____

____

____

____

2. Most American Indians ____

____

____

____

____

____

What is a government? ____

____

____

____

____

____

4. **White Protestants** ________________________________

____

____

____

____

5. **Most Irish people** ________________________________

____

____

____

____

____

6. **Most Jewish people** ________________________________

____

____

____

____

____

7. **What is a slum?** ____

____

____

____

____

____

____

8. **Why do people live in slums?** ______________________________

____

____

____

____

____

____

9. **Most Chinese** ____

____

____

____

____

____

10. Who owns cities? ____________________

11. Most Italians ____________________

12. What causes race riots? ____________________

13. What makes a good family?

14. People from different groups should

Part Two

Listed below are six different groups of people, followed by phrases which may describe them. Each phrase is indicated by a letter. On the line after each group of people, write the letters of the phrases that you think describe that group.

Indians ______________________________

Italians ______________________________

Negroes ______________________________

Irish ______________________________

Jews ______________________________

Chinese ______________________________

White Protestants ______________________________

A. Live close together in groups
B. Are unfriendly
C. Are treated badly
D. Are lucky
E. Have bad tempers
F. Are stubborn
G. Are very religious
H. Look different
I. Are smart
J. Are kind
K. Are not very smart
L. Eat different foods
M. Have funny names
N. Like music
O. Live in slums
P. Are very artistic
Q. Are good looking
R. Have different customs
S. Are friendly
T. Are hard workers
U. Are poor
V. Are athletic
W. Try to take over
X. Make trouble
Y. Fight a lot

Exhibit F

Upper Grade Unit

Code Book for Sentence Completion Instrument

Exhibit F

Code Book

Items

1. Most Negroes
2. Most American Indians
4. White Protestants
5. Most Irish people
6. Most Jewish people
9. Most Chinese
11. Most Italians

A. UNDIFFERENTIATED - GENERALIZING - GLOBAL DESCRIPTIONS
01 nice, helpful, friendly, kind, o.k., respectful
02 kids have Negro friends/like Negroes in general
03 same as anybody else
04 normal except for color
05 different from us
06 some good (friendly), some bad (mean)

B. PHYSICAL ATTRIBUTES - GEOGRAPHICAL FACTORS
07 color of skin
08 physical appearance
09 value judgment of appearance
11 good athletes
12 still alive today
13 place of origin, present location
23 roamed plains, hunted
24 lived on reservation

C. CULTURAL - FOOD, RELIGION, LANGUAGE
10 food
14 have different customs, nationality
15 have different beliefs (religion)
16 go to church
17 go to temple
18 believe in God
19 don't believe in God
20 is a religion
21 language
22 nice to children
25 celebrate St. Patrick's Day, wear green
26 very religious
44 similar to Catholics

D. ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS
    30 lots of money, nice homes
    32 laundries and restaurants
    34 live in ghettos, slums

E. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS, POSITIVE OR NEUTRAL
    27 fun loving, sing and dance
    28 lucky
    29 superstitious
    31 know judo

F. PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS, NEGATIVE
    33 bad tempers
    35 not friendly
    36 dirty, mean
    37 fight, start trouble, cause riots
    38 not liked, cheap
    39 don't like U.S., are Communists
    40 are bad

G. POLITICAL (merged with D)

H. SOCIAL - VICTIMIZED, PUT UPON
    41 are picked on, (present)
    42 angry at/were mistreated by whites (historical)
    43 were slaves

X. OTHER 48

Y. DON'T KNOW 49

Z. NO ANSWER 50

Item

3. What is a Government?

A. PEOPLE
    01 people who make laws, run country
    03 a leader or ruler

B. PLACE
    02 place where laws are made

C. LAWS
    04 has to do with taxes
    05 policy, laws, rules
    06 makes laws, rules people

Item

7. What is a Slum?

A. ECONOMIC
    01 place where poor people live

B. EXTERNAL CHARACTERISTICS
    02 dirty, messy
    03 rundown, old, not taken care of
    04 crowded
    05 house
    06 apartment
    07 tenement

C. PEOPLE
    08 Negroes live there
    09 a bad person lives there

Item

8. Why do People Live in Slums?

A. ECONOMIC
    01 not enough money
    03 no jobs available
    04 can't find anywhere else

B. PERSONAL - NEGATIVE
- 02 not enough education
- 05 too lazy to get a job
- 06 they're bad people
- 09 like it there

C. PERSONAL - POSITIVE OR NEUTRAL
- 08 to keep warm and healthy

D. SOCIAL - NOT WANTED
- 07 not wanted anywhere else

Item

13. What Makes a Good Family?

A. INTERNAL RULES AND PHYSICAL REALITIES
- 01 rules, obedience, manners
- 02 cleanliness
- 06 good house
- 07 good food
- 08 religion

B. MATERIAL
- 03 good job
- 04 money
- 05 education

C. RELATING
- 09 love, caring
- 10 sharing, togetherness
- 11 kindness, understanding, talking
- 12 don't fight
- 13 good members

Item

10. Who Owns Cities?

01 the people
02 the government
03 an official (president, etc.)
04 city itself
05 government and people
06 government and official
07 officials and people
08 nobody

09 other
10 don't know
11 no answer

Item

12. What Causes Race Riots?

01 when people don't get along
02 when people make fun of others
03 people treated badly
04 fights
05 teenagers
06 when Negroes form a group
07 mixed races fight
08 kids confused with running race

09 other
10 don't know
11 no answer

Item

14. People from different groups should

01 be friendly, understanding, talk things over
02 get to know each other
03 help each other, be nice and good
04 love each other
05 work together, share, co-operate
06 live together
07 get together
08 get along better, don't fight
09 talk like us

10 other
11 don't know
12 no answer

Exhibit G

Lower Grade Unit

Interview Manual

Exhibit G

Interview Manual

First Interview with Second-Grade Class: A Few Background Notes

I. Technique

The interview should be serious, but not strained. The child should know that you are really interested in knowing what his opinions are in a person-to-person manner. However, the child should be kept relaxed and casual in order to have the interviewer gain as much information as possible. Therefore a formal "testing" tone or atmosphere should be avoided.

Try to keep it at a "serious chat" level. If, for example, the child starts to digress, be polite, but lead him back to the topic as quickly as possible without squelching him. On the other hand, if he seems to start tensing up, starts getting nervous about what you might be "aiming" at, or becomes shy about talking, throw in a "relaxing" type question, such as "What's your favorite TV program?" (Ask this question under the section that asks the child if he has ever seen Negroes on TV.) Try in this way to avoid letting the interview seem too pointed by making the student feel that he is being "grilled."

In part II of the interview, most of the children like actually to pick up, touch, or point out their color choices. Also, it seems less confusing to the child if you remove his choices from the pile of crayons as he makes his selections.

II. Purposes of the Interview

1. To discover how much contact the students have had with Negroes, either personally as in school and/or more indirectly through TV, magazines, etc.

2. To see what impression each contact has made on him -- whether negative or positive. For example, did he think a Negro classmate was nice? If he remembers seeing groups of Negroes on the TV news (in what we would recognize as being marches, demonstrations, etc.) does he think that they seemed to be "nice or good people" doing a "good thing" or vice versa? It may be possible to get an indication of his general impression or even stereotype of Negroes and also to see how much he is already prejudging each Negro he may meet on the basis of that impression. (If the impression is negative, the latter is more likely to be true.)

3. To see how many groups he is already aware of (Question 6), how much he is already seeing individuals he may meet as being members of certain groups rather than simply seeing the individual as just another random individual.

With these general purposes, you will be able to gauge how much to probe a student's answer more deeply -- particularly after you have done an interview or two.

III. The Interview Itself

A. Some Ways of Opening the Interview

The introduction to any evaluation exercise should tie in with the course to make the exercise seem more natural and less strange (therefore less frightening) to the student. Introductions should also avoid making the student feel that the teacher wants certain types of answers, for example, "tolerant," love-thy-neighbor type answers. A suggested introduction might be:

> "In class we have been talking about you, things you do, ways you feel. Next in class we will talk about you as a member of a group -- you doing things with other people, and about groups of people. Your class is an example of one group, and the people in your church could be another group. I would like to know how much you already know about different groups of people."

B. Recording the Interview

The simplest and least distracting way of recording is for the teacher unobtrusively to take notes. This will not, of course, be a verbatim account, but will consist mostly of jotting down phrases. Try to retain the flavor of the child's answer by jotting down his own wording as much as possible -- especially in regard to the "extra" information the child volunteers. For example, when the child answers that he liked a group or thought it was nice because "_________."

Space will be provided on the interview sheet for recording the answers.

Exhibit H

Lower Grade Unit

Interview Guide: Interview I

Exhibit H

Interview Guide: Interview I

A. Introduction (see Interview Manual, Part III)

B. Questions

1. Have you ever had a little Negro friend?

   (If yes, find out how close and frequent the relationship was. For example, Do you play with your friend at home as well as at school? Does he (she) visit your home? How often? Children at this age define friend very loosely. They might, for instance, define a friend as someone they were with once - so be careful!)

2. Have you ever had a Negro neighbor?

   (If yes -- was he (she) an adult or a child? How close was the relationship? Did you and your family think he (she) was nice, or did you like him (her)?)

3. Do your parents know any Negroes? If yes, who are they?

4. Have you ever had a Negro classmate or teacher?

   (If yes, determine whether student has only seen Negro students or teachers in other classes in his school or has had more immediate contact with them.)

5. What Negroes do you know?

   (This may overlap with the questions above, but it was designed to find out Negroes the student may know, but might not classify in above categories; for example, adult Negro friends of parents, laundress, etc.)

6. Negroes might be considered one group. Do you know people or do you have any friends who might belong to other groups?

   (If no, suggest the following:

a. For example, in this country different groups of people go to different kinds of churches.

Do you have any friends or know any people who go to churches different from yours?

b. Everyone who lives in this country came from another country -- either your parents or their parents or grandparents or maybe even your grandparents' parents originally came here from some other country. Do you know what country your family came from?

Do you have friends or do you know people who came from countries other than the one your family came from? Which countries did they come from?)

7. In your neighborhood or downtown just in general, have you seen any other Negroes?

What were they doing?

Did they seem nice? Not very nice?

What makes you think they were nice (not nice)?

(If answer to general question is no, suggest the following:

Do you ever see them when you go to the grocery store or when you go shopping with your mother and father?

Do you ever see them on the playground?

Do you ever just see them on the street?

What are they doing?

Do they seem nice (not nice)?

8. Do you ever watch TV?

Do you ever see any Negroes on TV?

What are they doing?

(Let the student give either a yes or no answer. In either case, however, suggest to him or ask him before he finishes this question whether or not he has seen):

Negro baseball (or other sport) players?

Were they good?

Negro singers or dancers?

Comedians?

Negroes in stories? (for example "I Spy")

What were they playing in the story?

Were they good (or smart, nice, etc.?)

Negroes on a newscast?

Negro newscaster on Channel 4?

Negroes on the news films showing things that are going on around here and in the whole country?

(If yes, find out what students thought the Negroes were doing and whether the "Negroes seem to be nice" or "Well, did that seem to be a good thing?")

(Without mentioning the word riot, etc., ask "Have you seen groups of Negroes on the news?")

9. Have you ever seen pictures of Negroes in the newspapers or magazines?

What were they doing?

Nice/not nice?

Doing good/bad things?

Exhibit I

Lower Grade Unit

Interview II

Exhibit I

Interview II

Do you like stories? Do you like to have people tell you stories or read stories to you? Let's make up a story together -- the two of us. I'll make up part, and you'll make up part. O.K. We'll call the story "My Back-to-School Party."

My Back-to-School Party

Now let's say you're going back to school next September. Let's say you're (showpicture 1) in a new school, in a pretty new classroom, and you have a lot of new classmates who weren't in your class last year and a new teacher. The teacher is wearing a brown dress and brown shoes. Her name is Miss Kenney, and she is very nice. She asks you what all your names are and reads you a story about an elephant on the first day you are in school.

After school is over, you go home. Your mother asks you all about your first day back in school. You tell her about your new teacher, Miss Kenney, and about the pretty new schoolroom, and about all your new classmates.

Your mother is surprised that you have so many new classmates, and she says, "Would you like to give a little party after school one day -- maybe after school on Friday -- and ask some of your classmates at school to come?"

You say that would be a great idea, and you'd like that very much.

"Well," says your mother, "whom would you like to ask? By the way, who is your very best friend at school?" "________________." "Well, we'll ask him (her) first."

(Teacher) Now whom in this picture of your new class would you like to ask next? (Show child picture 1 and ask him to rank the order in which he would like to ask the 7 children shown, as for example, "And next you would like to ask 2 -- and then you'd like to ask," etc.)

And then your mother says, "Why, your new classmates all sound so nice -- let's just ask them all. Now that we've decided whom we're going to ask to your party, let's decide what we're going to have to eat at your party. What would you like to eat? What are your favorites?"

(Show child food stencil and fill in his choices. Then give him the sheet and ask him if he would like to color it later and put it in his scrapbook.)

Finally the day of your party arrives, and guess what? (Show child picture 2.) That's right. It's raining. And all your little friends arrive all bundled up in their raincoats and carrying umbrellas so they won't get wet. Your mother says, "Now you all must be thinking up some games you can play indoors." (Show picture 3.)

One little boy wearing a white-and-blue-checked shirt says, "I've brought you a present. I've brought you a jar of grasshoppers which I caught all by myself."

All the children crowd around asking questions. And he then tells how he caught the grasshoppers while he was out fishing with his father and what you are supposed to feed them.

Your mother says, "Why don't we have the __________(favorite food) and the __________(drink) now and then play some games, and then when you're hungry again we'll have the ice cream and cake."

After you all have eaten the __________and__________, your mother says, Now, can any of you think of a good game that we can play indoors? Whoever thinks of the best game will get a prize." Someone raises a hand and says, "Let's play Let's Pretend. Someone will think of an animal, and everyone else will pretend to be that animal. Then the child who named the animal will decide who acted the animal the very best and he will be the winner and get to name the next animal everyone must imitate."

One little boy yells, "Hurrah, that's a great idea. C'mon everybody." Everyone thinks Let's Pretend is really a great game.

(Now, let's see, which one of the children do you think thought up the game? Show child sheet 3.)

So the little (describe the boy or girl chosen by his or her clothes) is given a prize for thinking up a good game. And then your mother says, "Now let's start to play the game. Why don't I name the first thing you are to imitate? Let me think. Oh, I know. O.K., everyone pretend to be a grasshopper."

But one child chirps the merriest and jumps the highest and your mother says that child is the winner. Now (show sheet again) which one shall we say won the game? 4 And who the next best? 5____.

And everybody at the party plays the Let's Pretend game again and again -- they pretend to be elephants and cowboys and all sorts of things.

After about an hour, your mother says, "My, but you all have been so busy, you must be tired. Why don't you play a quieter game while I go fix the ice cream and cake?"

So the children decide that they will play "Sharing." "What will we share?" asks one little boy. "Why don't we share what we would like to be when we grow up?" (Show picture 4)

So everybody sits down, and one by one the children stand up and say what they would like to be when they grow up. (Show sheet 4 and point out children)

Now this little boy would like to be (get child to give responses). __6__ And this little girl ______(Continue pointing out ________)

Your mother comes back into the room and says, "Oh, children, someone has been very naughty and has slipped in and eaten almost half the cake."

Now which of the children do you think it was? (Show child sheet and get him to give response.)

The children look disappointed at not having any cake, and your mother says quickly, "Well, I'm sure the person who did it is sorry now. But don't worry, I made a very big cake and there's still plenty for everyone."

So everyone eats lots and lots of ice cream and cake. By then it is getting late so all the children put their raincoats back on and pick up their umbrellas and say what a very nice time they had and go home.

The End

INTERVIEW II -- ANSWER SHEET

1. Grade ____________________

2. Guests -- Order of preference

3. Thinks up best game ______________________

4. Wins game __________________________

5. Runner-up in game _______________________

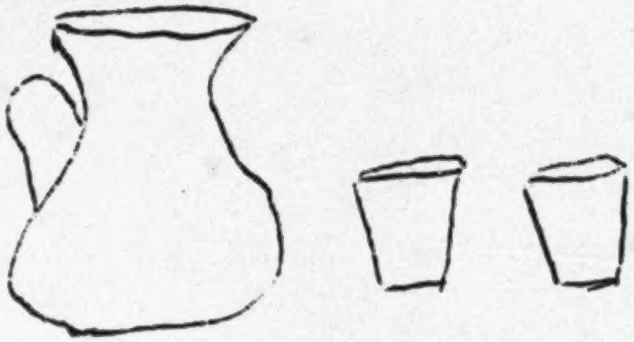
6. What would like to be when grown up _____________________

7. Troublemaker___________________

Exhibit I

THINGS I WOULD LIKE TO EAT AT MY PARTY

To-Drink:



To Eat:

My Favorite Kind of Ice Cream:

My Favorite Kind of Cake:

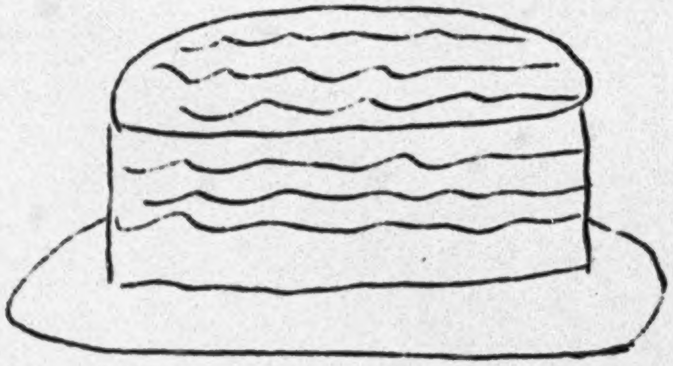


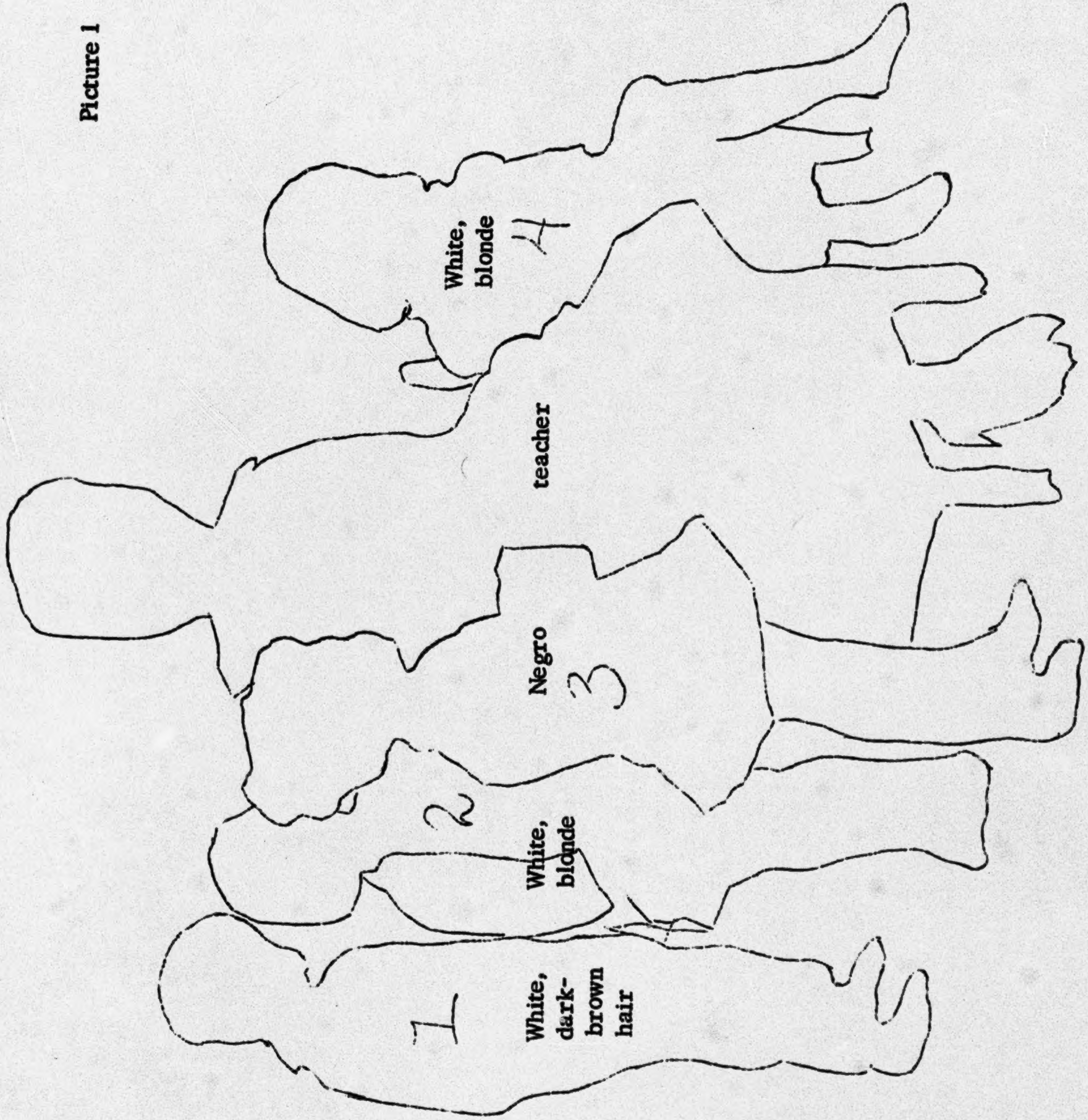
Exhibit J

Lower Grade Unit

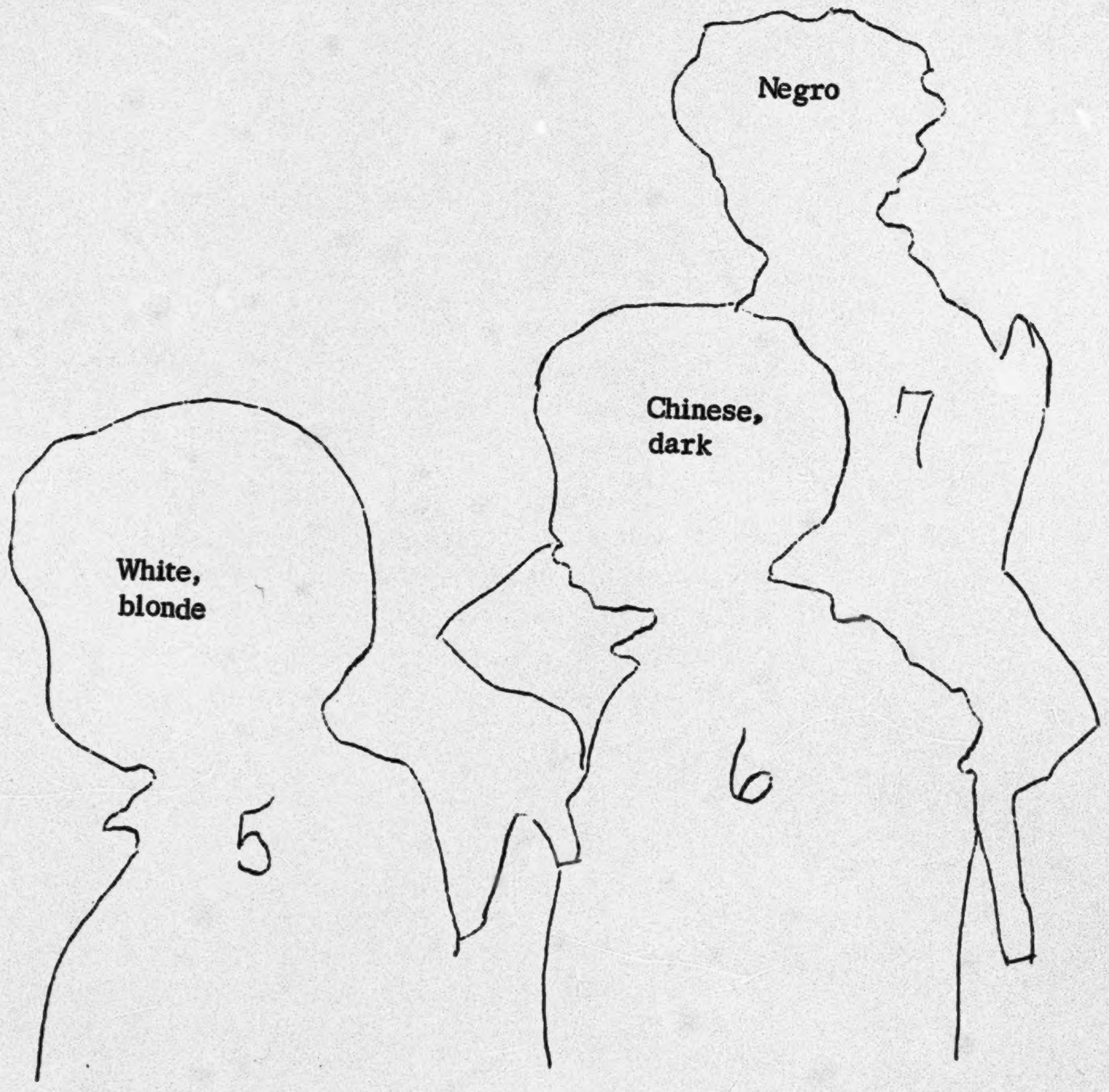
Recording Sheet for Interview II

Exhibit J
Recording Sheet
Interview II

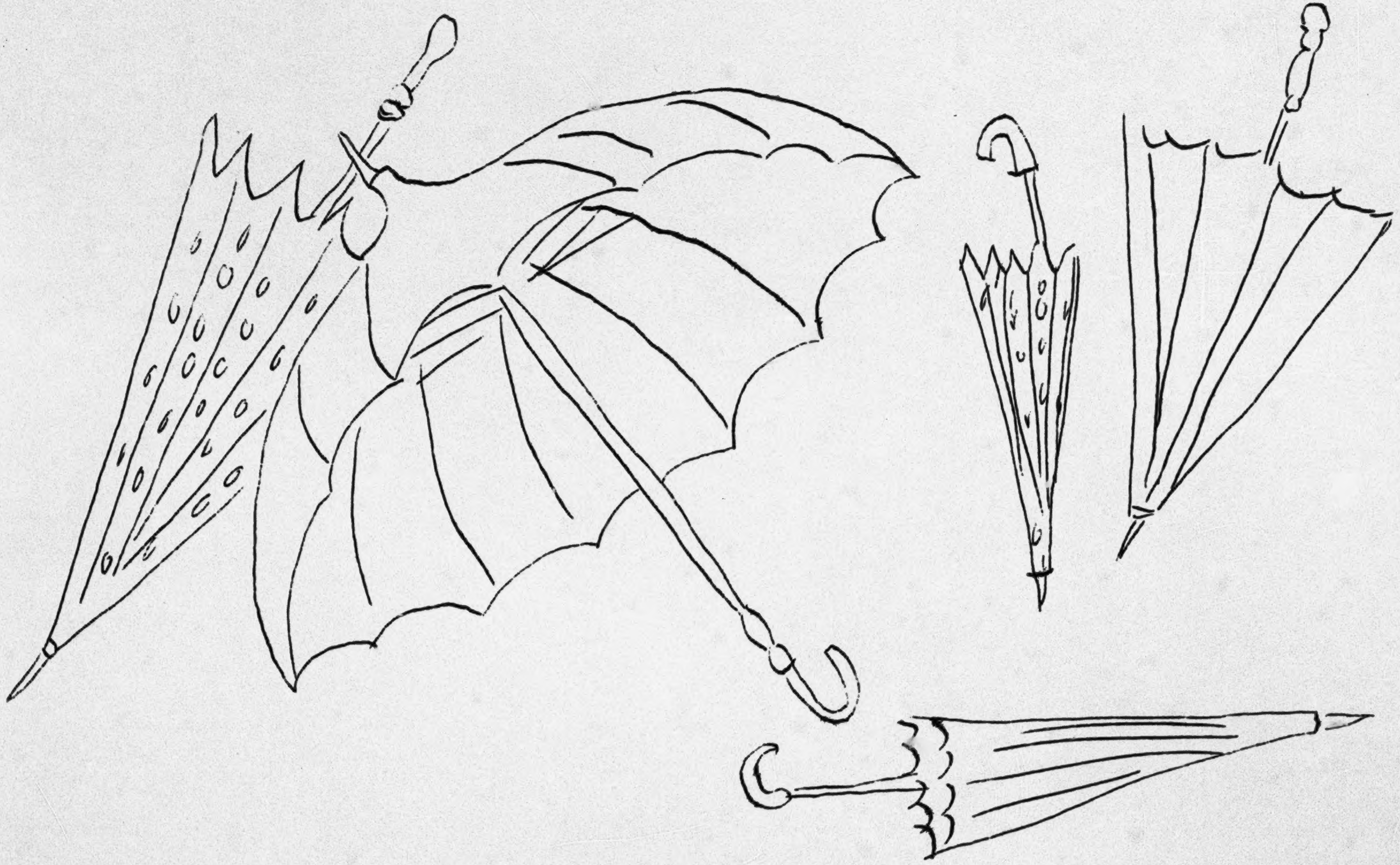
Picture 1


White, blonde
4
teacher
Negro
3
2
White, blonde
1
White, dark-brown hair

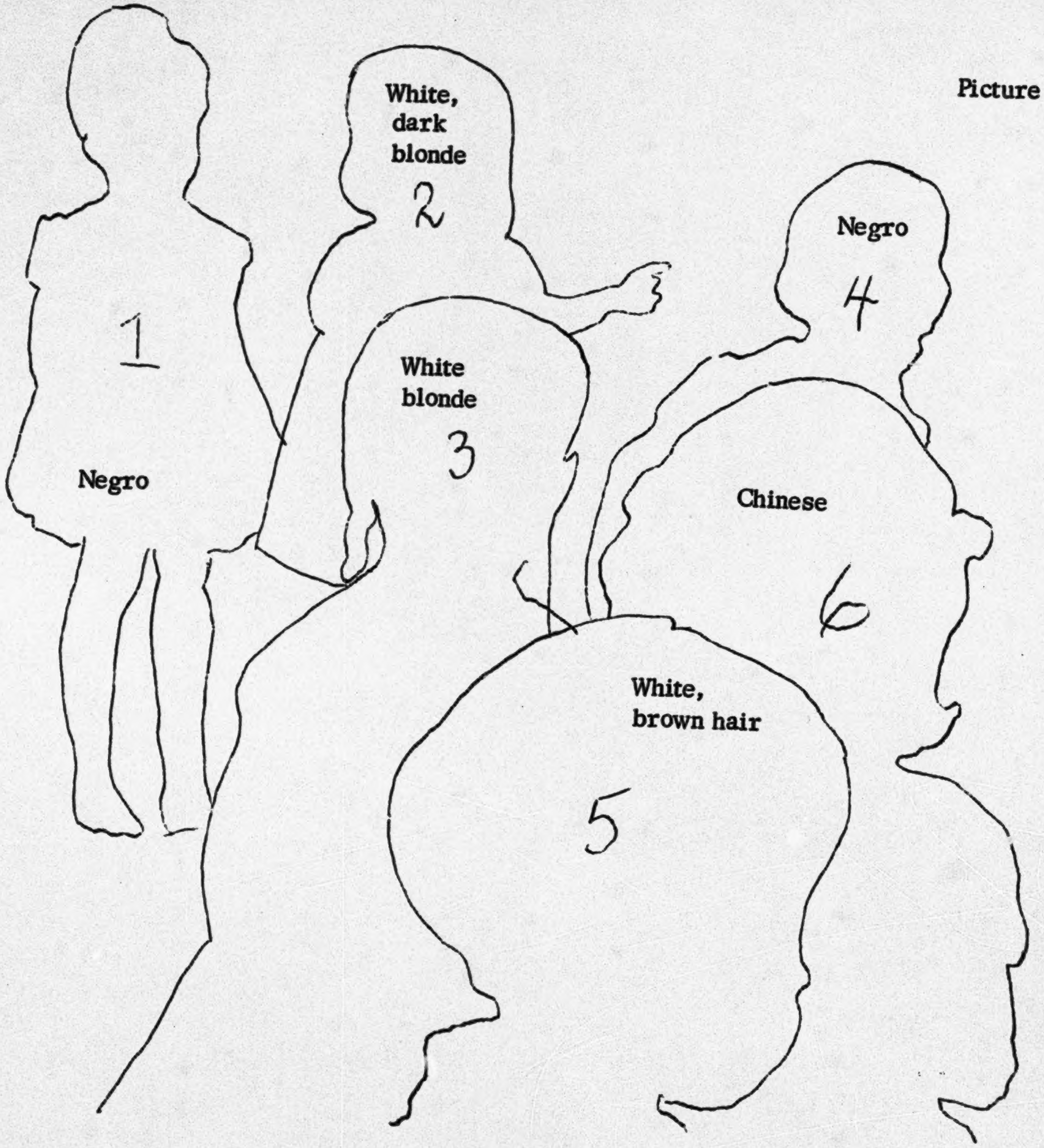
Picture 1


Negro
Chinese, dark
White, blonde
7
6
5

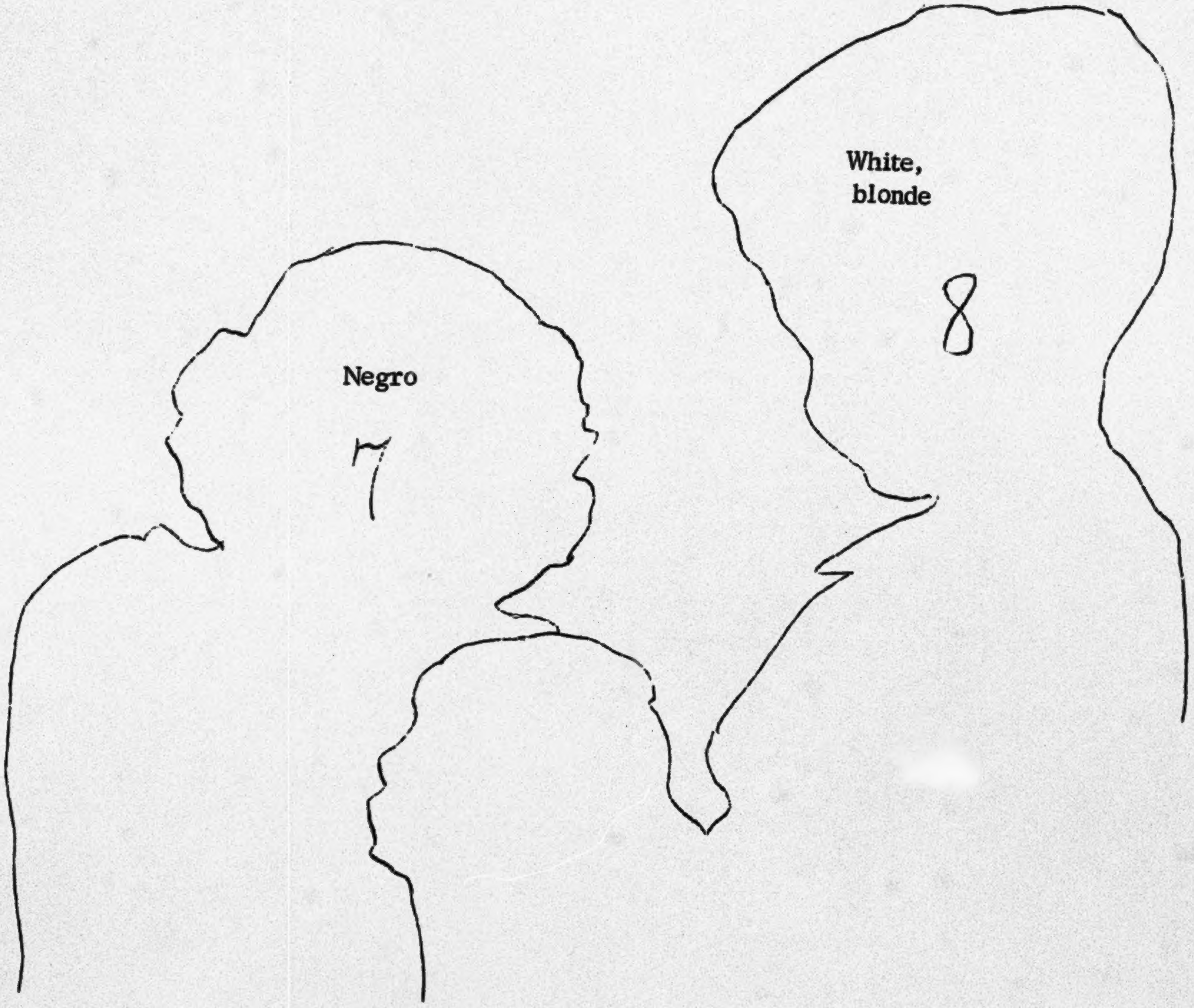
Picture 2



Picture 3


White, dark blonde
2
Negro
4
1
White blonde
3
Negro
Chinese
6
White, brown hair
5

Picture 3


White,
blonde
8
Negro
7

Picture 4

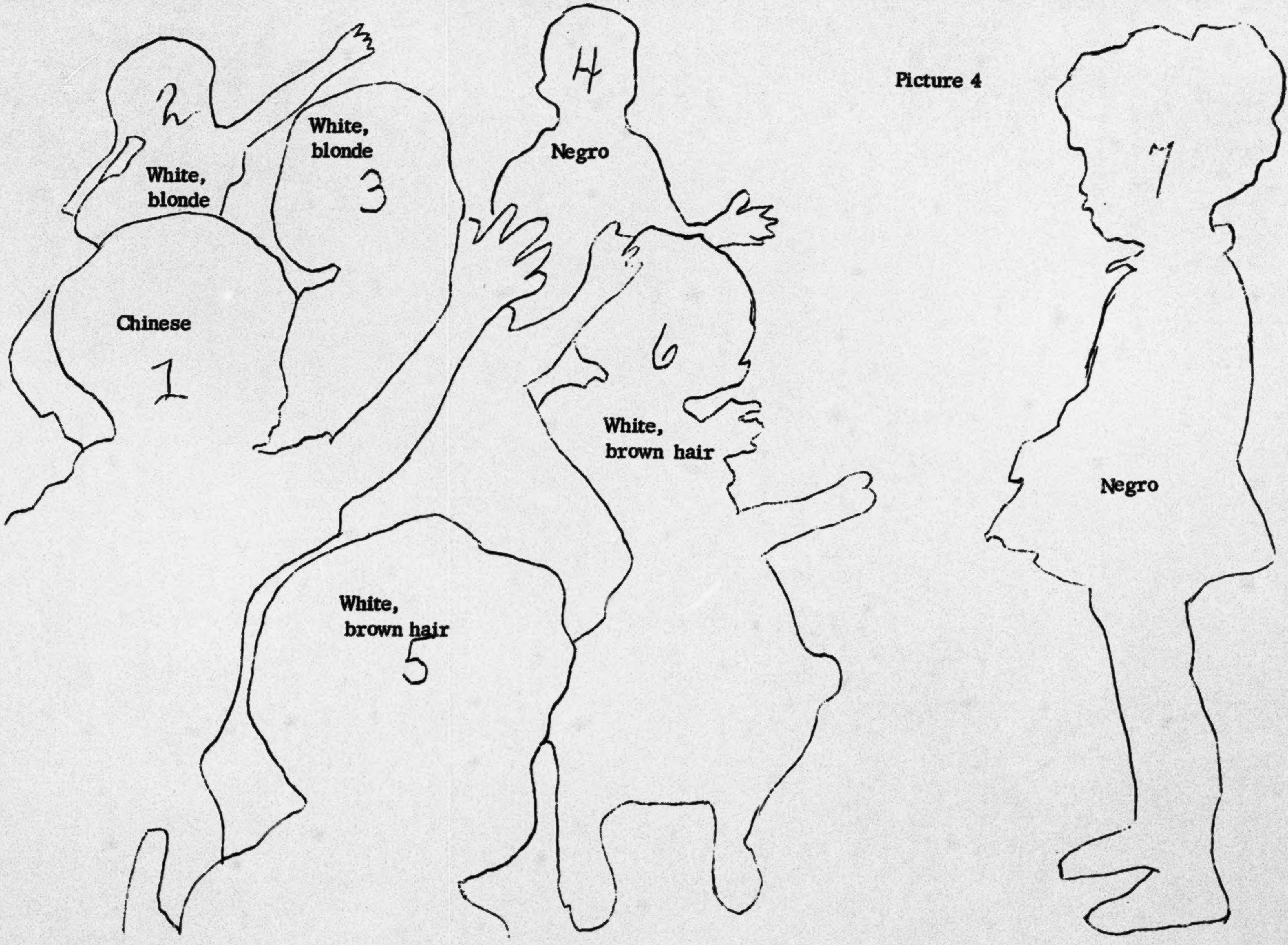

2
White,
blonde
White,
blonde
3
4
Negro
Chinese
1
6
White,
brown hair
White,
brown hair
5
7
Negro

Exhibit K

Lower Grade Unit

Interview III

Exhibit K

Interview III

Materials:

Seven crayons for the child to choose from -- red, yellow, blue, orange, green, brown, black (scatter black and brown among others).

Introduction:

"You'll be drawing lots of pictures for the scrapbook you will be making about yourself soon. Do you like to draw?"

Questions:

1. What do you like to draw best? Indoor or outdoor scenes?

2. Which of these is your favorite color?

3. What do you use it for?

4. What is your next favorite (2) color?

5. What do you use it for?

Continue with questions 4 and 5 until all seven colors have been ranked.

Color Ranking

	Color	Use
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		

C. SOME PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

C. SOME PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

By way of setting a general frame of reference for this section dealing with the data obtained by means of the devices and procedures described in the preceding section, it must be stressed that the summer program was viewed as a tryout period rather than as a time of active evaluation. We were essentially interested in whether the ideas we had about evaluation could work in actual practice. If we were able to collect some helpful evaluative data, we considered it good fortune rather than good planning. Just as the various curriculum units at both the upper- and lower-grade levels were being given field trials, so were the evaluation procedures.

The one exception to this orientation for interpreting the work of the summer is the information that was gathered in three Medford (Massachusetts) schools during the spring of 1967. Here we did have pre- and post-audit data which we attempted to examine in detail in order to detect what changes in students' perceptions and concepts might have taken place as a result of the use of the project units.

For ease of interpretation, we will present results according to the sequence of evaluation procedures already described.

Upper Grade Unit

1. Stereotype-Sorting Exercise. Nineteen children completed a number of sorts, each sort matched to a designated group of people. The results for the individual children are shown in Table 1. It should be noted that not all children completed

the same sorts. This obviously limits any conclusions which may be drawn from the existing data, but even with these restrictions on interpretation a number of trends may be discerned in the data, along with several promising questions which may be profitably followed up in next year's curriculum trials.

Table II reports the number of sorts completed within the total group of 19 children and the total number of affirmative and negative attributes broken down into the two subgroups described earlier: the clearly differentiated, and the one containing the two adjectives which could carry affirmative or negative connotation depending on the frame of reference, this group being referred to as undifferentiated.

Since the number of sorts varies widely from group to group, Table III has been prepared to show the percentage of total response which is affirmative and negative for the total number of different groups to which the children sorted.

An inspection of Table III shows that the three groups with the highest percentage of assigned negative attributes are Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Jews in order of descending magnitude. It will be recalled that the sorting exercise included a ranking of groups according to order of preference. Of the 19 children who provided the data being presented, eight also ranked their groups in order of liked or favored groups. Table IV lists the order of group preference for these eight children. The finding that Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Jews are perceived with a higher degree of negative attribution appears to be further reinforced by the ranking data. In almost every case, Negroes, Puerto Ricans, and Jews fall just at the median rank or below it.

While no strong conclusions may be drawn from the present data, lacking as they do appropriate controls for validity and reliability, there does seem to be a visible trend in the direction of negative stereotyping toward certain racial, ethnic, and cultural groups among these fifth-grade children. Because of limited time, the analysis of these data has been confined to group findings. If further resources should become available, it would be interesting to do some individual case studies to see if there are relationships between "own group" membership and negative stereotyping of other groups.

2. Children's Drawings. Too few drawings were obtained from the upper-grade children to warrant any evaluation. Teachers reported, however, that children appeared to be willing to do these drawings, so that from the standpoint of student co-operation, drawings even with the older children may prove to furnish valuable information regarding their perceptions of themselves, others, and their home and school environment.

3. Sentence-Completion Measure. The analysis of data yielded by the pre- and post-auditing of the students in the three schools in Medford is based on the following population of students:

School		Number
Osgood		25
Brooks		23
Columbus		27
	Total	75

Exhibit F gives a detailed breakdown of responses grouped in the larger categories which will be reported in Tables V through VIII. These tables are based on coded responses to Items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, and 11 which concern various ethnic, racial, and cultural groups. For ease of interpretation, the titles of the broad categories will be repeated here:

A. Undifferentiated--Generalizing--Global Descriptions

B. Physical Attributes-Geographical Factors

C. Cultural--Food, Religion, Language

D. Economic Characteristics

E. Personal Characteristics, Positive or Neutral

F. Personal Characteristics, Negative

G. Political--merged with D

H. Social-Victimized, put-upon

Another way of looking at the Medford school data is by way of the graphs which appear as Figures 1-7, covering the items dealing with selected groups of people, and Figures 8-11, which report on responses to the items concerned with the children's conceptualizations regarding government, the problem of slums, and the good family.

To summarize the results briefly, the following conclusions may be drawn from the tabled and graphed data over all items in the sentence-completion instrument.

In regard to selected groups of people, there were:

1. A slight decrease in undifferentiated, global responses of the type "same as everybody else" shows up in two schools (Brooks and Osgood). (Table V)

2. A marked increase in all three schools in the number of responses which emphasize physical attributes, geographical factors, cultural characteristics such as food, religion, and language. It probably is safe to say that this change is directly attributable to instruction. (Table VI)

3. In two schools (Columbus and Brooks) there was an increase in responses reflecting economic characteristics and in one school (Columbus) a substantial increase in positive or neutral personal characteristics. (Table VII)

4. In one school (Osgood) there was a notable decrease in negative personal characteristics. (Table VII)

5. In one school (Columbus) there was a marked increase in perceptions of minority groups as being socially victimized. At the same school there was a sizable increase in the number of positive personal characteristics mentioned. (Table VIII)

6. Two schools (Osgood and Columbus) show greater effect of the course experience than does one school (Brooks) over all minority group responses. (All Tables)

With respect to the items covering general topics and concepts, the following may be said:

7. Government is primarily viewed in terms of concrete reference to people, places, and laws rather than to processes or functions. This continued to be true after the completion of the unit. While concrete operational thinking is characteristic of this age group, it would be worth while to re-evaluate the content of the unit to determine whether this type of idea is being fostered. (Figure 8)

8. Law becomes a more dominant reference for government at two schools (Osgood and Columbus). (Figure 8)

9. An increase in social processes as reasons for slum dwelling is matched with a decrease in personal characteristics as reasons. This possibly reflects a greater understanding of the wide range of social processes. (Figure 10)

A beginning was made in analysis of the responses to Part II of the sentence-completion measure based on all three school populations. This part consisted of six different groups of people to which the students were to apply characterizing phrases from a given list. These phrases lent themselves to the same category system which had been developed for the open-ended items in Part I. The question guiding this analysis was: "Does the verbal complexity of attitude structures tell us anything about the processing of new related information?" More specifically, we were asking about the relationship between the pre-course use of adjective phrases in terms of number to describe various groups and the change in the level of production to complete the open-ended items at the beginning and the end of the course program. In order to account for a ceiling effect, logarithmic values of the change proportion were used. A graphical representation of the data showed a fairly pronounced negative correlation between the number of adjective phrases used and the log of the change ratio.

There are a number of possible and very tentative interpretations. First, for this finding we may consider high articulation of attitude (use of adjective phrases) to be reflective of high stereotyping, in which case we would expect high levels of adjective use to reflect more prejudiced and closed attitudes. A second explanation would be that descriptive complexity is a cover for high anxiety or for any other factor which might interfere with information processing. A third possibility is the relationship between adjective usage and actual quality of knowledge content. In other words, what is the relationship between amount of verbal description and the individual's degree of information?

While this analysis is at best a promising beginning, it should be possible to explore the area in the future by a more detailed analysis of the content of the individual student's responses and more precise measurement of his tolerance for differences from himself. In the section on directions for further evaluation, a proposed Acceptance and Rejection of Differences Scale will be described.

Lower Grade Unit

1. Oral Interviews. (a) "Debriefing". These interviews were tried out at the Heath School in Brookline with six children ranging in age from six to nine years, both boys and girls. As Coles mentioned in Children of Crisis, young children are often uninterested in conversation. They want to be on the move and are bored at the prospect of hearing words and being expected to use them. It is not that they don't have ideas and feelings or a need to express them to others. It is simply that -- as one eight-year-old boy told him -- "Talking is okay, but I don't like to do it all the time the way grown-ups do; I guess you have to develop the habit."[4]

We did not fare much better than was to be expected in the light of the foregoing comment. The first draft of the interview was entirely too long and had too many abstractions the children could not deal with seriously. A second draft appears somewhat more promising, since it is based on the developing ability

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[4] Coles, op. cit. p.41.

Table I

Results of Sorting Exercise - Upper Grade Level

Groups	Students							
	A		B		C		D	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Friend	8/2	3/0					9/1	1/0
Americans	9/1	2/1						
Catholics	9/1	2/1	1/0	0	5/2	0	5/1	1/0
Chinese	9/1	3/1	1/0	0			1/0	4/0
English								
Indians	2/1	9/1	0	1/0	1/0	5/2	3/0	10/1
Irish	8/1	3/1	0/1	0	0	6/2	6/1	7/2
Italians	8/1	3/1	1/0	0			2/1	5/1
Jews	0/1	9/2					4/1	1/0
Negroes	5/0	3/1	0/1	0	0/1	8/1	1/0	6/1
Portugese			1/0	0				
Puerto Ricans	2/0	10/1	0	1/0			5/1	4/0
White Protestants	9/1	3/1	0/1	0	7/2	2/1	7/2	8/1

+ Positive Attributes (Number to the left of slant line indicates total with the exception of rich and nice; number to the right indicates selection of rich and/or nice)

- Negative Attributes (Number to the left indicates total with the exception of not very nice and poor; number to the right indicates selection of not very nice and poor

Blank space indicates No Sort

Table I Continued

Groups	Students									
	E		F		G		H		I	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Friend					7/2	0				
Americans							8/2	0		
Catholics	10/1	0								
Chinese	10/1	0/1			7/2	0			8/1	8/2
English			9/2	0			8/2	0		
Indians	3/0	10/1			7/2	0			5/2 8/1	10/1 9/2
Irish	9/2	0	8/2	3/1	7/2	0	1/0	11/1	9/2	6/1
Italians	9/2	0			7/2	2/0	2/1	2/2	8/2	10/2
Jews	8/1	4/0			7/2	0			8/1	9/2
Negroes	6/1	3/1			7/2	0	1/0	11/1	9/2	11/2
Portugese	9/2	0			7/2	0			8/1	9/2
Puerto Ricans	9/1	3/1			7/2	0			7/0	8/1
White Protestants	6/0	7/1			7/2	0			9/2	7/2

Table I Continued

Groups	Students							
	J		K		L		M	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Friend					7/1	0		
Americans					7/2	3/0	8/2	3/0
Catholics	3/1	0						
Chinese	0/1	1/1						
English					6/2	0	4/2	2/0
Indians	1/0	2/1						
Irish	1/1	2/1	4/1	2/1	4/1	0	5/2	0
Italians			6/1	1/0	7/1	0	6/1	0/1
Jews					3/1	1/1	3/1	5/1
Negroes			5/1	0	3/0	7/2	2/0	4/1
Portugese								
Puerto Ricans	0	2/2	2/0	1/0	1/0	3/2	3/0	2/1
White Protestants	2/1	1/0						

Table I Continued

Groups	Students							
	N		O		P		Q	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Friend			8/1	0	9/1	0/1	2/1	3/1
Americans			9/1	7/1	8/1	1/0	7/2	1/1
Catholics	8/2	6/1						
Chinese								
English			9/2	0	3/2	0	3/1	1/1
Indians	8/2	10/2						
Irish	9/2	8/2	9/1	0	0	3/1	4/1	2/1
Italians	9/2	8/2	8/2	1/0	8/2	2/0	4/2	2/0
Jews	8/1	9/1	8/1	0	2/0	11/2	4/1	0/1
Negroes	8/2	6/1	9/1	0	0	5/1	6/1	2/1
Portugese								
Puerto Ricans	8/2	5/2	8/2	2/0	0	10/2	4/1	1/1
White Protestants	8/2	8/2						

Table I Continued

Groups	Students			
	R		S	
	+	-	+	-
Friend	7/1	0	9/2	0
Americans	8/1	3/0	9/2	0
Catholics				
Chinese				
English	0	11/1	7/2	0
Indians				
Irish	7/1	0	10/2	0
Italians	8/2	0	9/2	0
Jews	1/0	11/1	9/2	2/0
Negroes	8/1	0	9/2	0
Portugese				
Puerto Ricans	6/2	0	9/2	0
White Protestants				

Table II

Total of Affirmative and Negative Attributes

N = 19

Group	No. of Sorts	Affermative Differentiated/Undiff.		Negative Differentiated/ Undiff.	
Friend	9	63	12	7	2
Americans	9	73	15	20	3
Catholic	7	41	8	9	2
Chinese	7	36	6	16	5
English	9	49	15	14	2
Irish	19	101	23	53	14
Italians	16	102	24	36	9
Jews	13	65	13	62	11
Negroes	17	79	15	66	13
Portuguese	4	25	5	9	2
Puerto Ricans	16	71	13	52	13
White Protestants	9	61	13	36	8

Table III

Percentage of Total Attributes to Each Sort Group

Classified Affirmative and Negative

Group	No. of Sorts	Percentage of Affirmative Attributes	Percentage of Negative Attributes
Friend	9	89.2	10.8
Americans	9	79.3	20.7
Catholic	7	81.3	18.7
Chinese	7	74.8	25.2
English	9	79.2	20.8
Irish	19	66.5	33.5
Italians	16	73.0	27.0
Jews	13	56.2	43.8
Negroes	17	52.6	47.4
Portuguese	4	73.6	26.4
Puerto Ricans	16	54.5	45.5
White Protestants	19	64.8	35.2

Table IV

Ranking of Groups According to Order of Preference

Student	Like Best 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Like Least 10
M	Americans	Italians	Irish	English	Negroes	Jews	Puerto Ricans			
L	Irish	Italians	English	Americans	Jews	Negroes	Puerto Ricans			
K	Negroes	Italians	Irish	Puerto Ricans						
E	Italians	Indians	Portuguese	Chinese	White Protestants	Negroes	Irish	Catholics	Jews	Puerto Ricans
P	Americans	English	Italians	Irish	Jews	Puerto Ricans	Negroes			
Q	Americans	Puerto Ricans	English	Negroes	Irish	Jews	Italians			
R	Americans	Irish	Jews	Puerto Ricans	Italians	Negroes	English			
O	Irish	Americans	English	Negroes	Jews	Italians	Puerto Ricans			

Table V

Change in Undifferentiated and Global Descriptions (A)

Number of Responses

School	Pre	Post	Diff	% Change
Columbus	74	77	+3	+4
Brooks	64	58	-6	-9
Osgood	51	42	-9	-18

Table VI

Change in Factual Content of Responses

(B + C)

Number of Responses

School	Pre	Post	Diff	% Change
Columbus	120	133	+13	+11
Brooks	97	102	+5	+5
Osgood	103	125	+22	+21

Table VII

Change in Socio-Economic Characterizations

(D+E+F)

Number of Responses

School	Pre	Post	Diff	% Change
Columbus	26	33	+7 D + 1 E + 7 F - 1	+26
Brooks	25	24	-1 D + 4 E - 6 F + 1	-4
Osgood	27	19	-8 D - 1 E - 1 F - 6	-26

Table VIII

Change in Perceived Passivity of Minority Groups (H)

School	Pre	Post	Diff
Columbus	3	10	+7
Brooks	7	5	-2
Osgood	12	5	-7

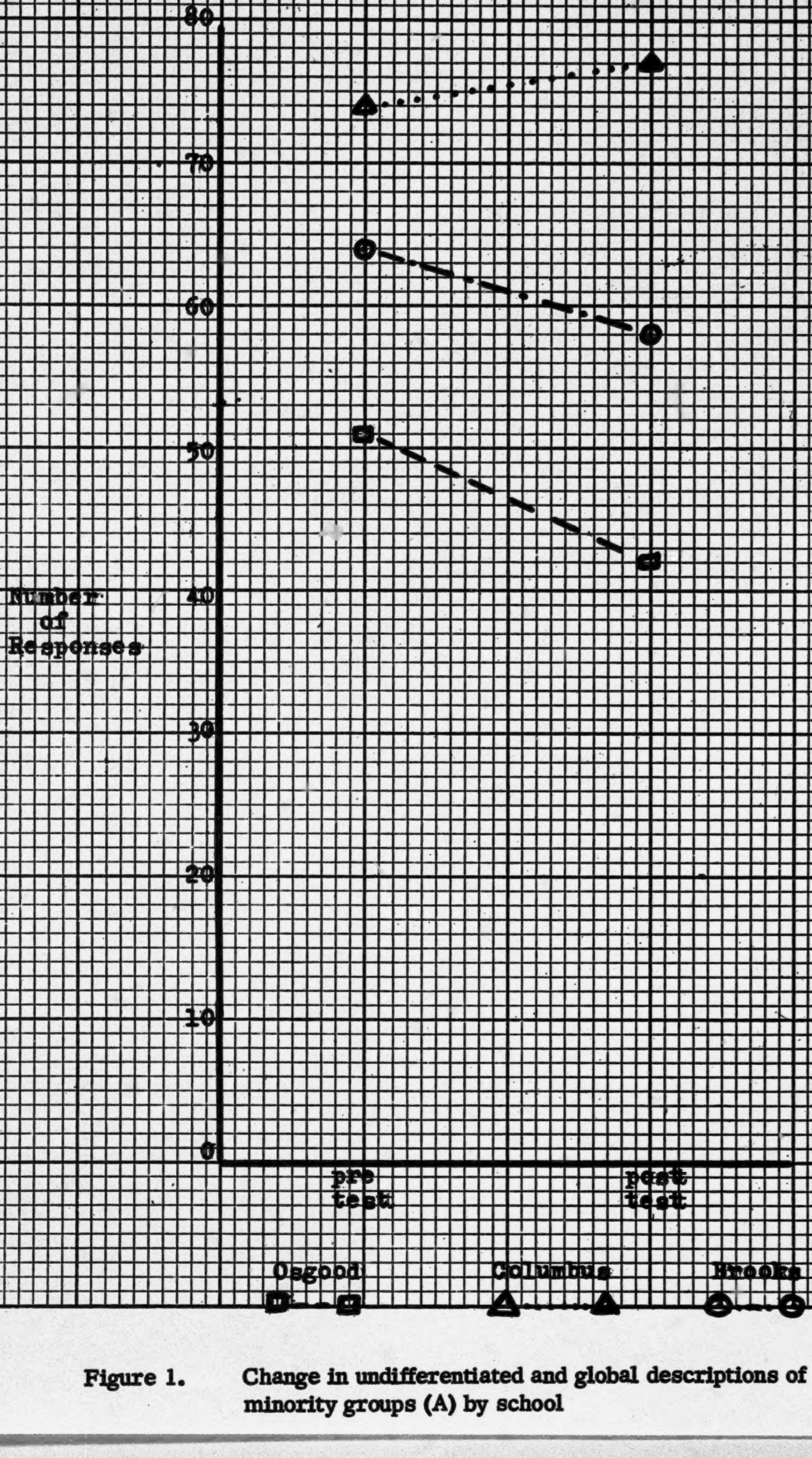

Figure 1. Change in undifferentiated and global descriptions of minority groups (A) by school

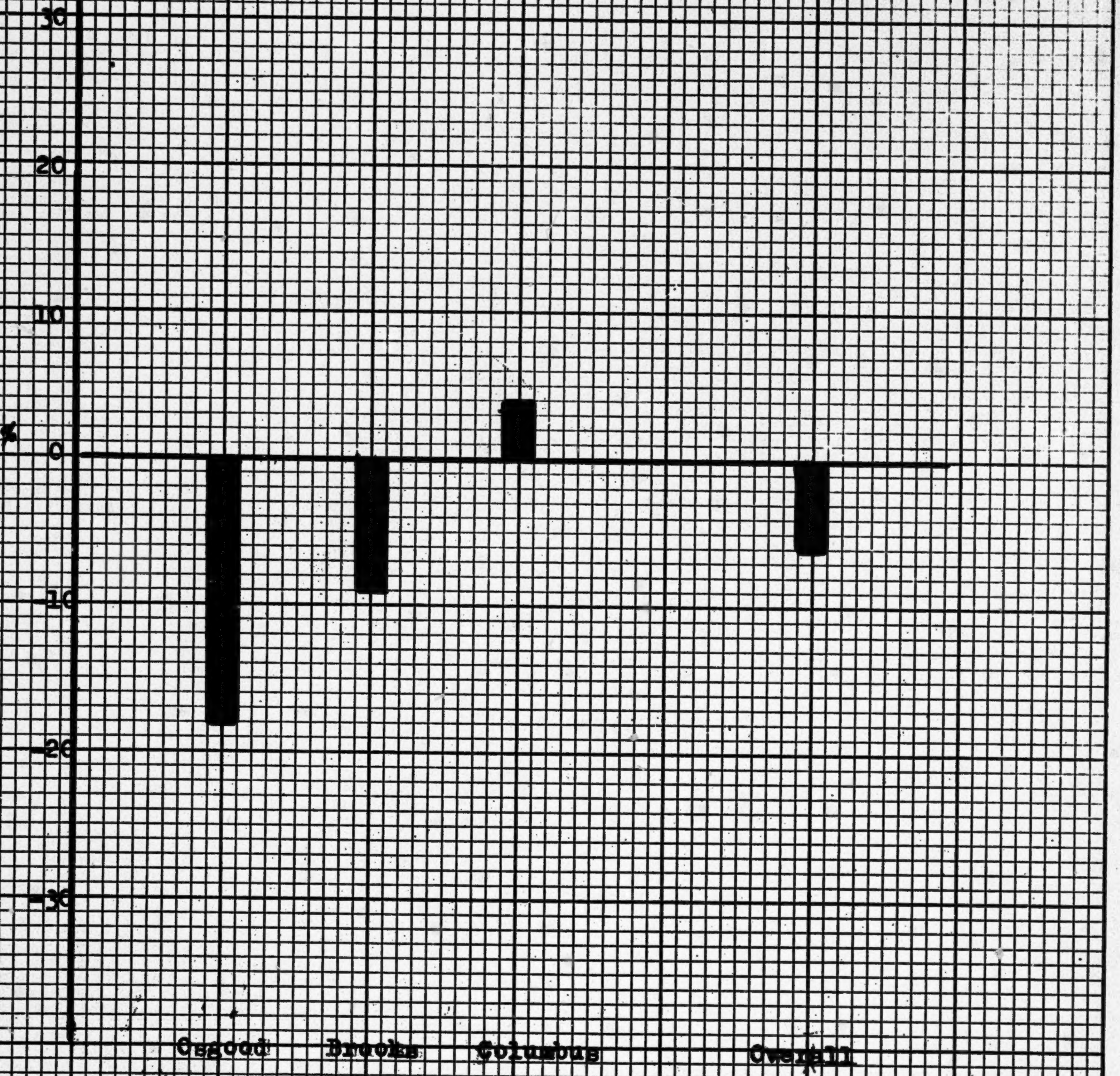

Figure 2. Percentage change in global and undifferentiated descriptions of minority groups (by school and overall)

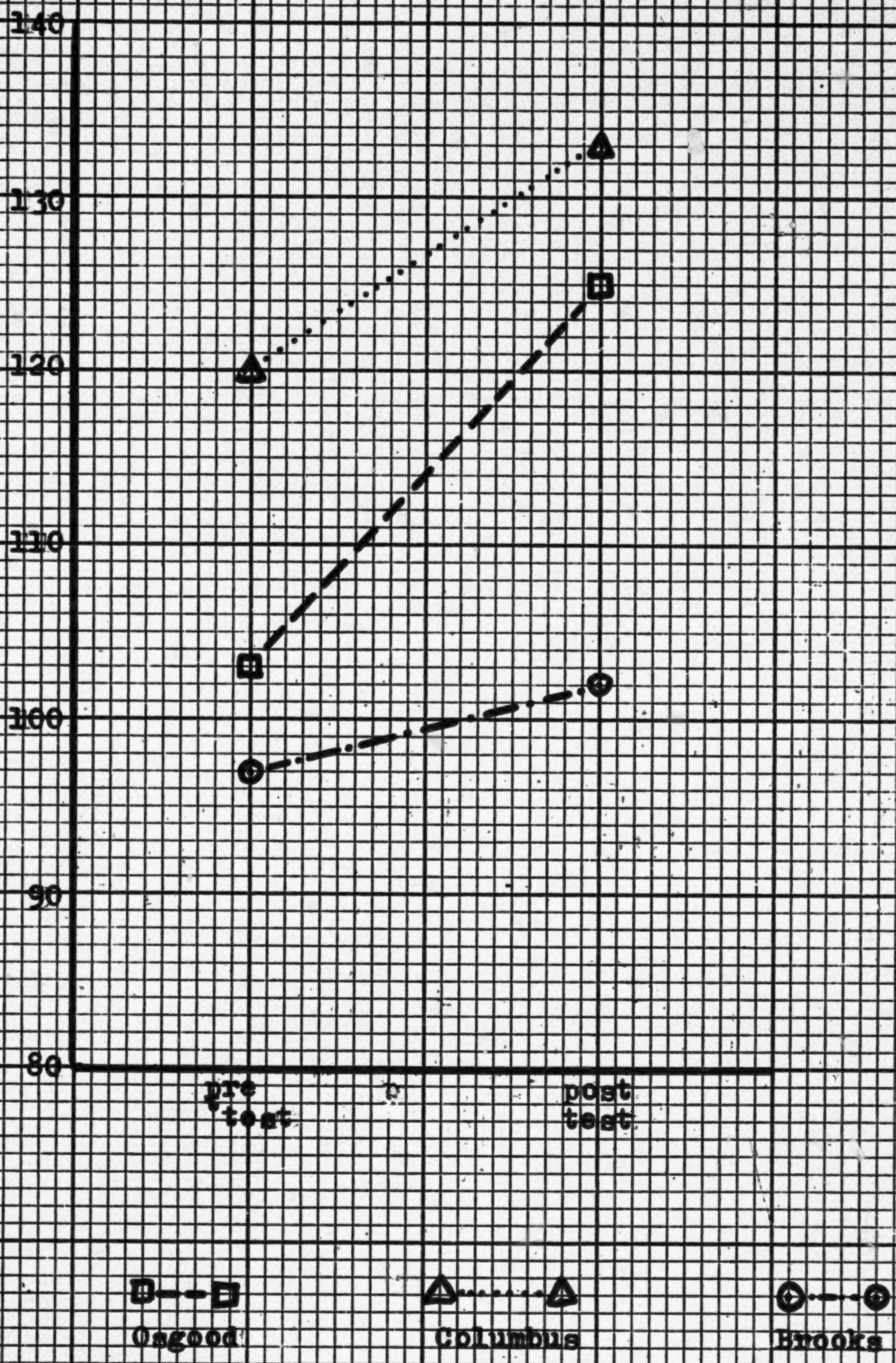

Figure 3. Change in factual content of responses regarding minorities (B & C) by school

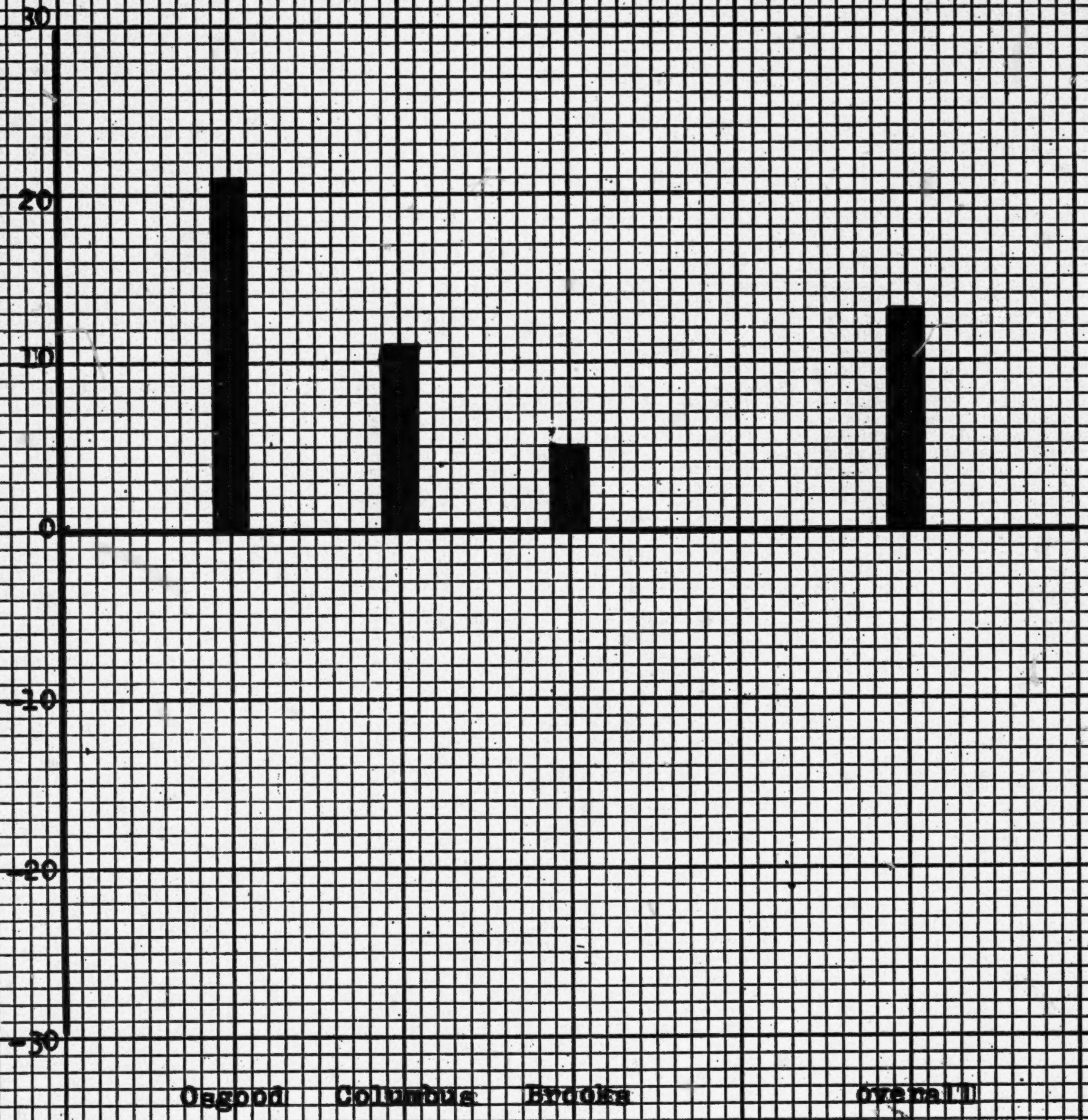

Figure 4. Percentage change in factual content of responses regarding minorities (B & C) by school and overall

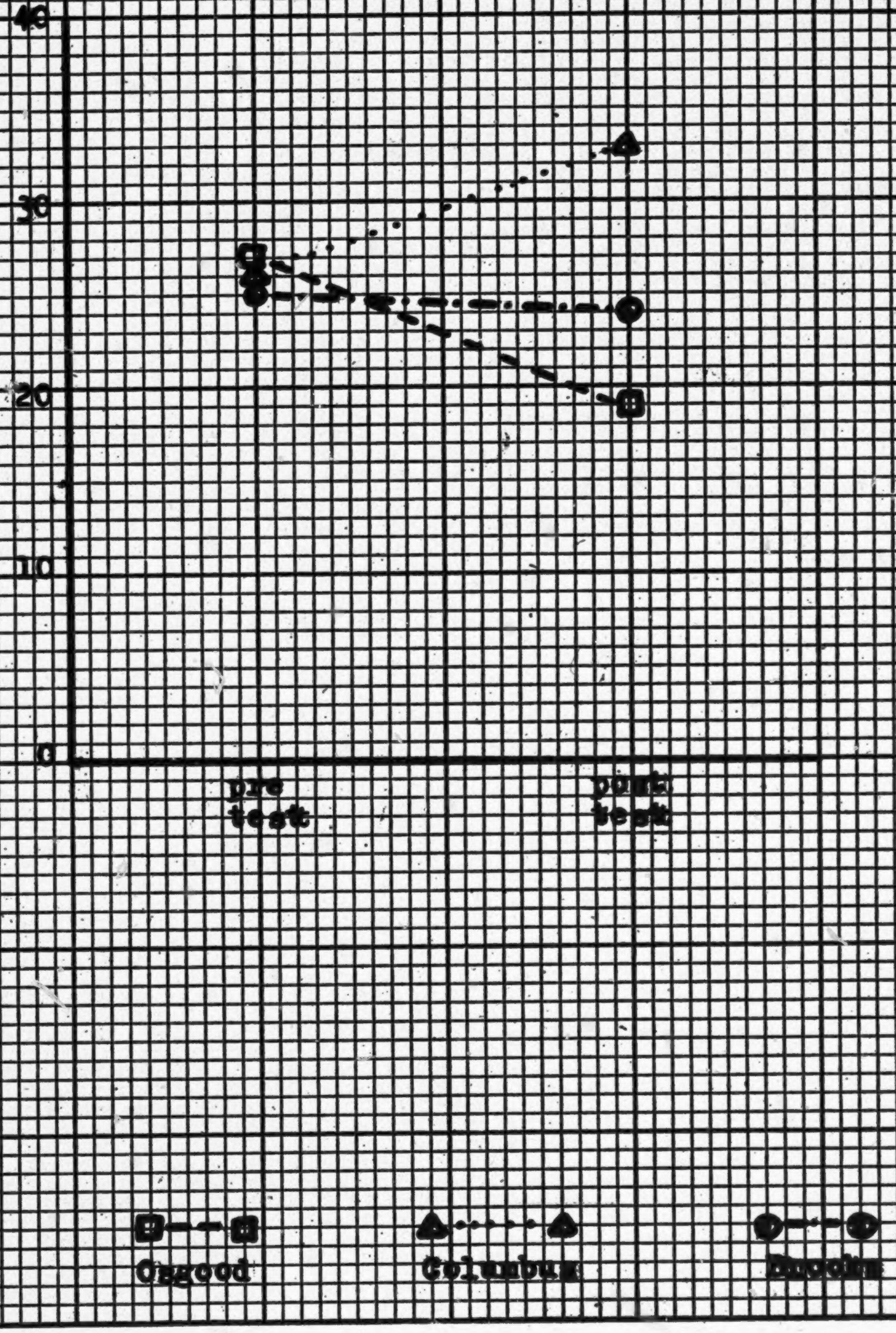

Figure 5. Change in socio-economic characterizations of minorities (D, E & F) by school

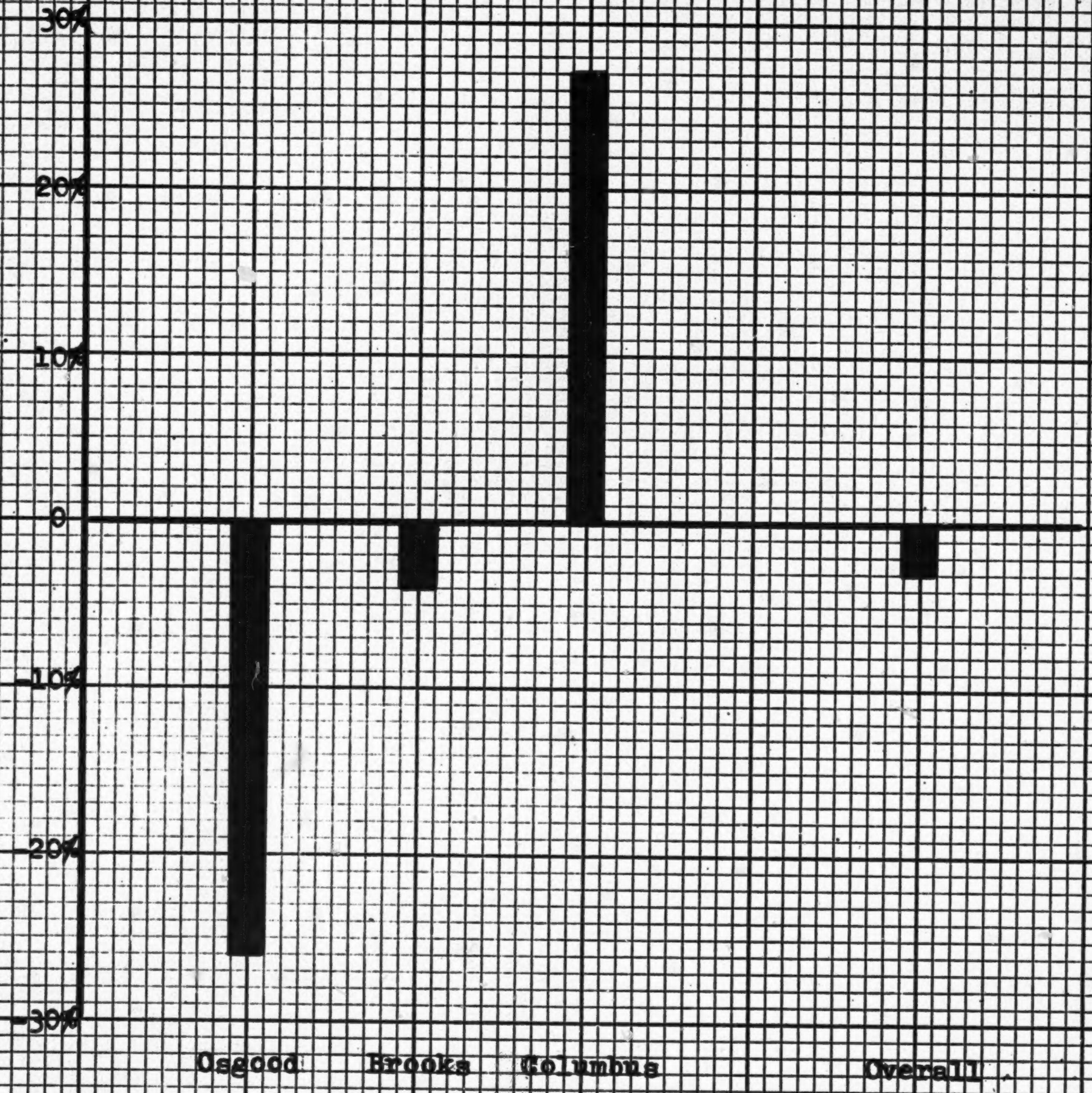

Figure 6. Percentage change in socio-economic characterization of minorities (D+E+F) by school and overall

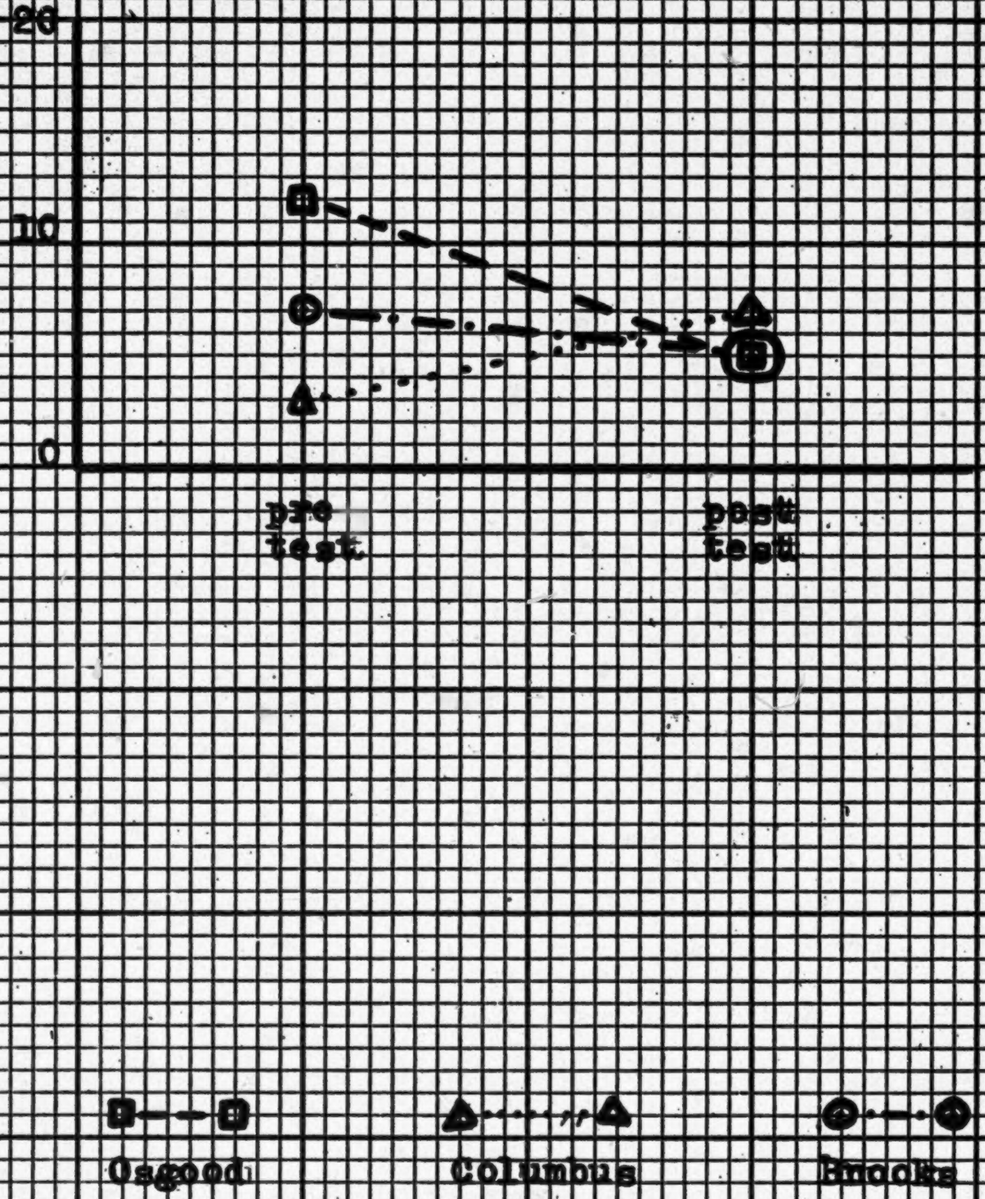

Figure 7. Change in perceived social passivity of minority groups (H) by school

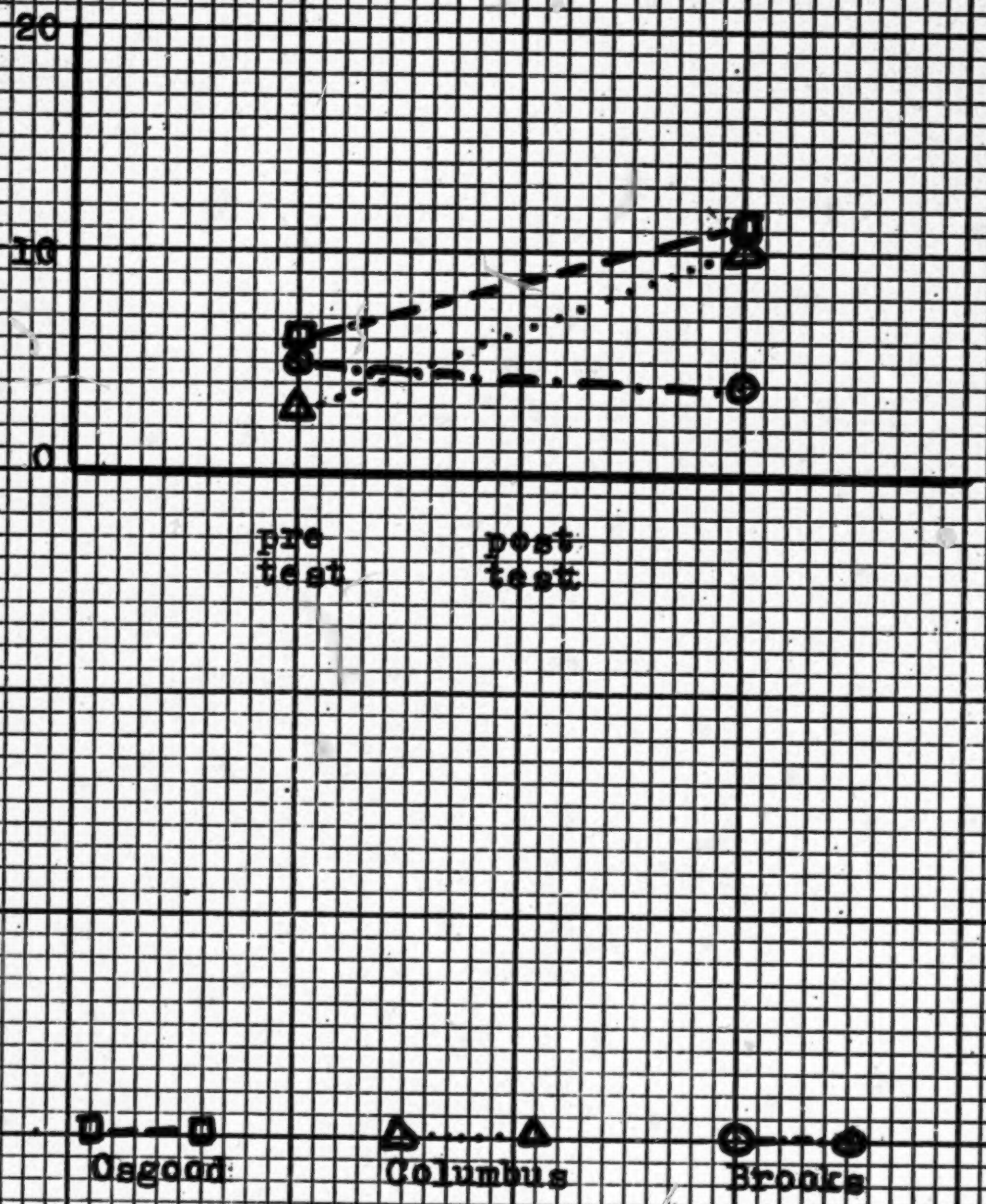

Figure 8. Changes in use of laws as reference for government (Item 3) by school

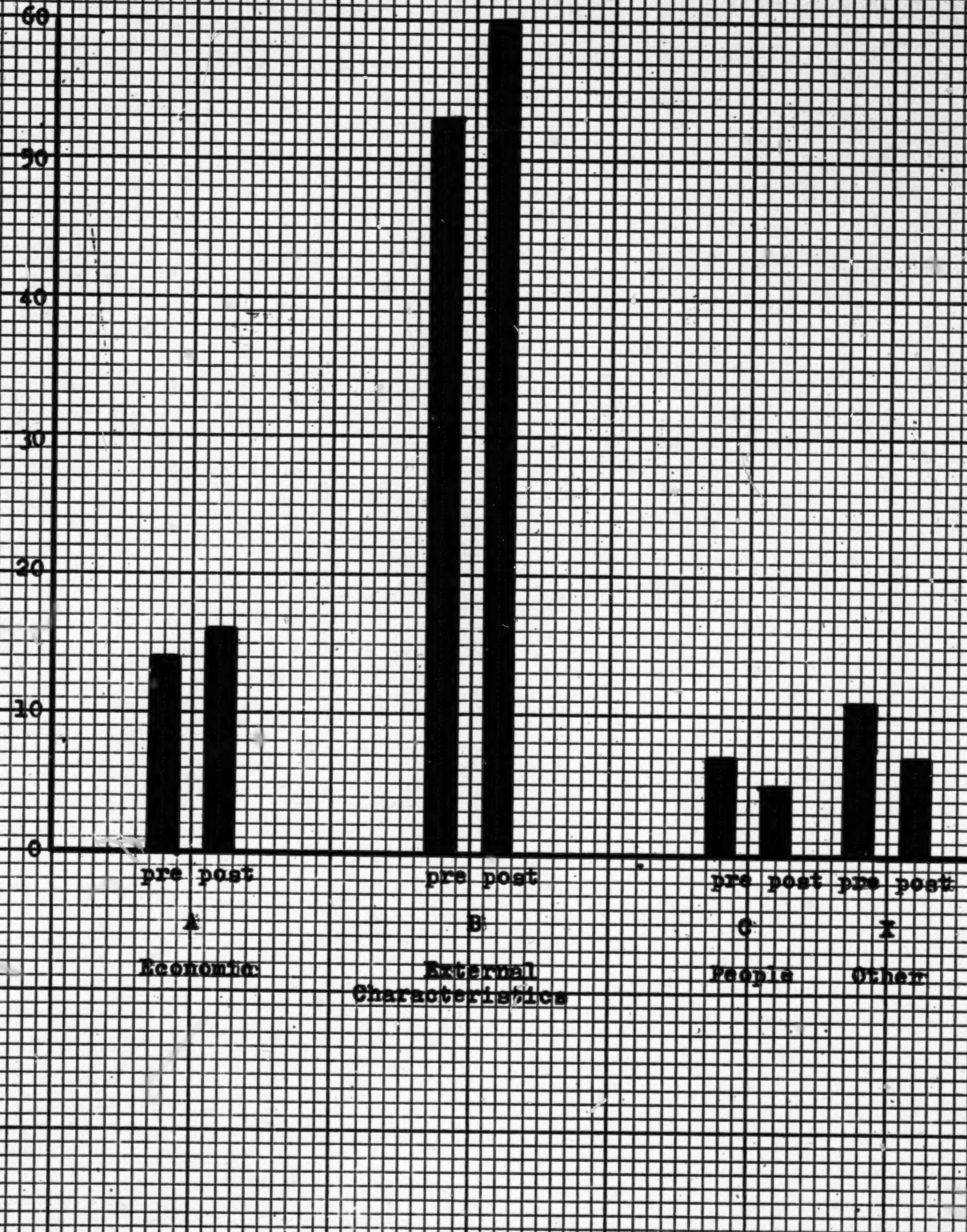

Figure 9. Change in responses to Item 7 (What is a slum?) overall

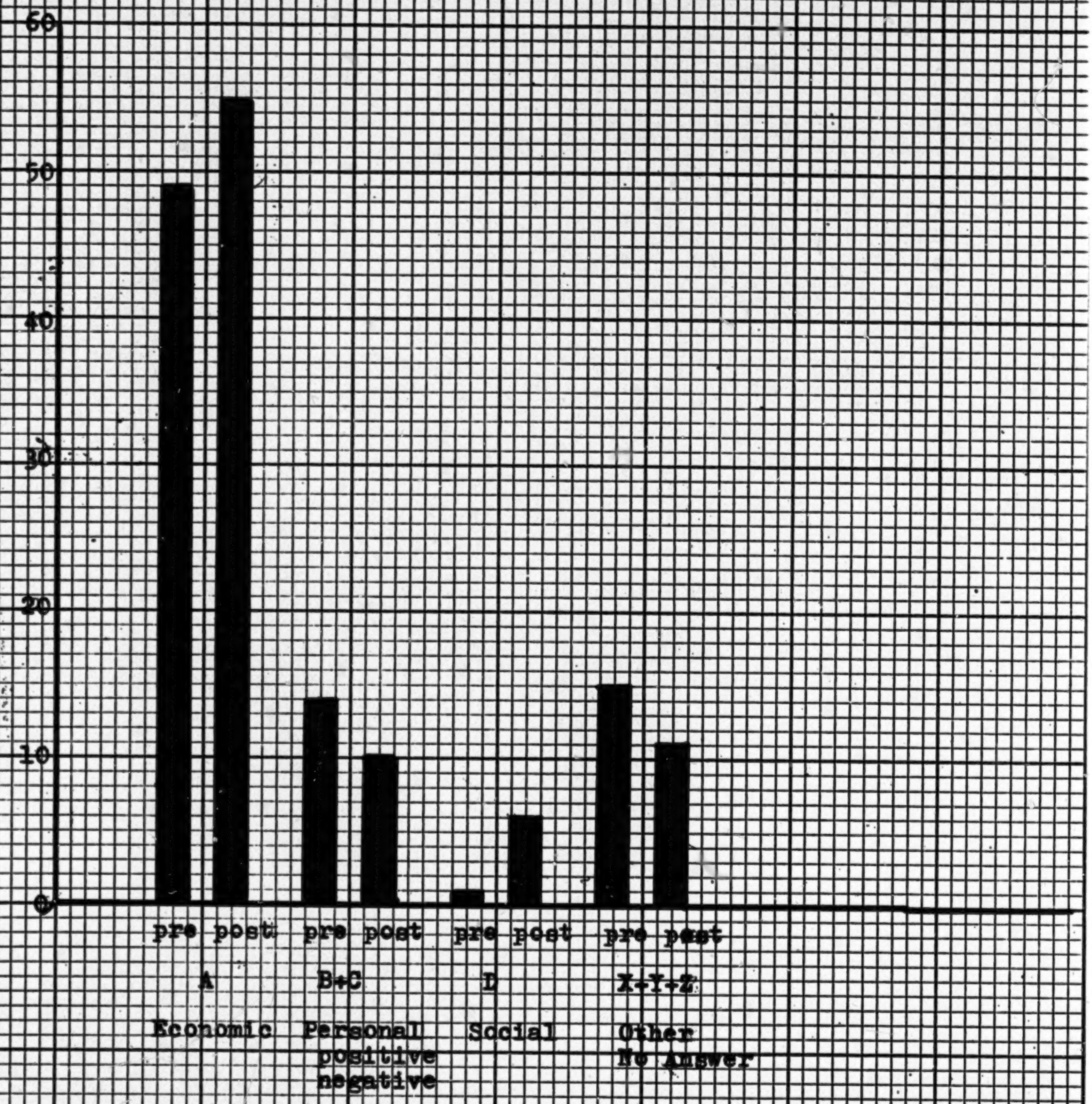

Figure 10. Change in responses to Item 8 (Why do people live in slums) overall

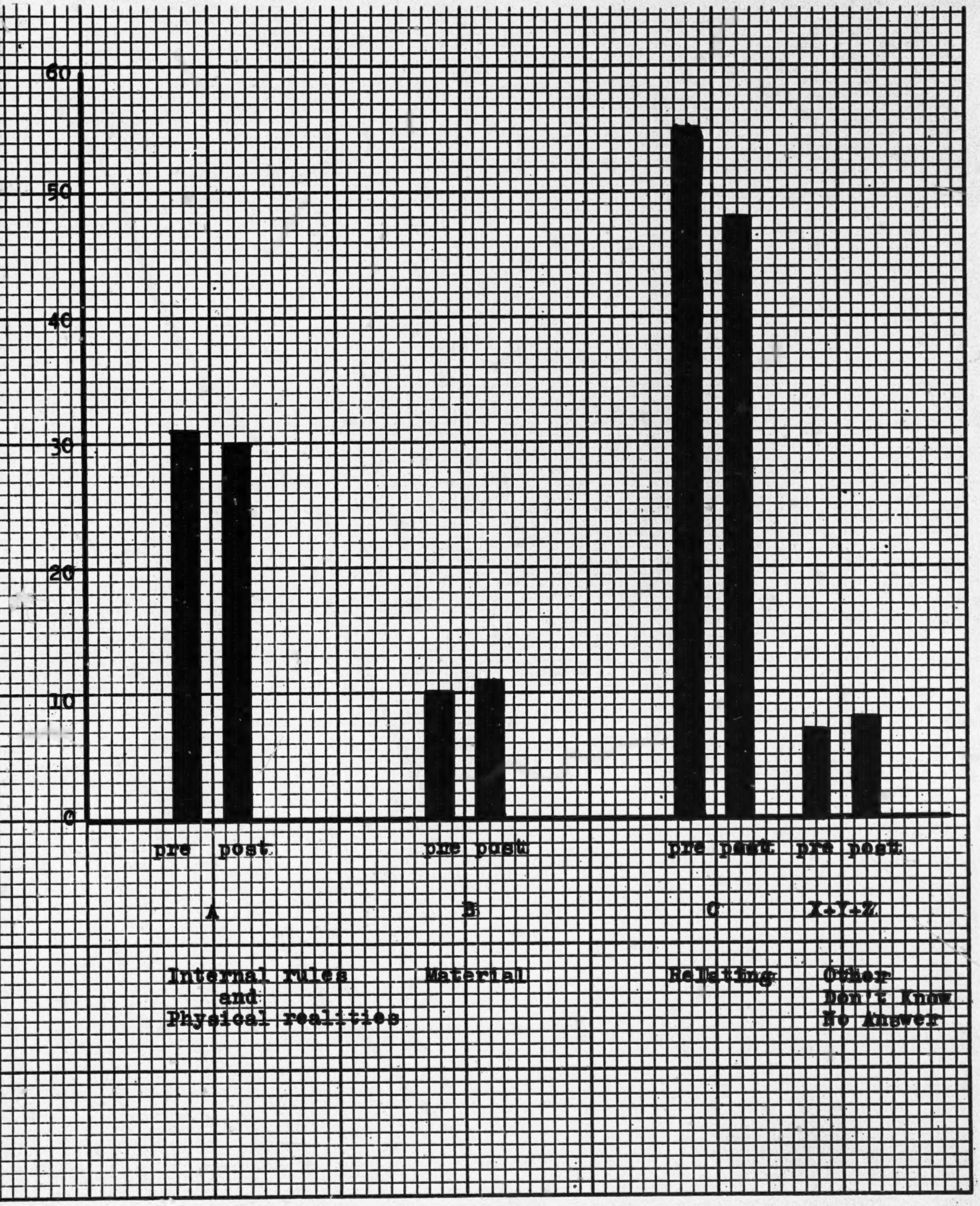

Figure 11. Change in responses to Item 13 (What makes a good family?) overall

of children of this age to detect differences and to express them directly. The questions to be included are:

1. Do you know any people who are different from you?
2. How are they different?
3. How are they like you?
4. If you were talking to me and you told me that some one was like you, what would you mean when you said some one like me?
5. What do you mean when you say some one is different from me?

A second part of the interview, the "Crayon Color Interview," was a rough attempt to get information on children's color preferences as one variable which could be related to other variables. Since the tryout group was so small, it is difficult to draw any conclusions about color preference and its relationship to the main object of the evaluation procedures -- the determination of the degree and direction of stereotypic thinking.

(b) Story Completion. This interview was very well received by both the teachers and the children who were interviewed. Evidently, the interview is fun, and the teachers took it so enthusiastically that they planned to develop stories of their own. Of course, this is precisely what is desired in the training of teachers to become better evaluators of their own teaching.

The preliminary findings are reported in Tables IX - XV which follow the questions incorporated in the story. The data based on interviews with 17 children give the general idea of the results. These children are seeing differences between groups and with some minor exceptions, when asked to rate or rank groups different from their own in terms of social distance or desirable or attractive characteristics, favored white children over Negro children.

Although these data can be considered in no way conclusive, there are indications that these young children are beginning to exhibit signs and symptoms of at least the beginning of prejudice.

One major difficulty with the interview must be noted. Suitable material for pictures is difficult to locate. We assumed that colored pictures of the illustration variety would be more compelling than photographs, but this is still an untested assumption. It also is difficult to locate pictures of children and adults who clearly represent the characteristic physical appearance of selected groups. Moreover, position of figures -- prominent as compared to less prominent location -- may also play a determining part in eliciting particular responses.

(c) Color Preference. Based on an interview population of 19 students, these results are presented in Table XVI. If the rank choices are summed above and below the median rank (ranks 1-4 and ranks 5-8), a two-way distribution of favored versus less favored colors is produced, as reported in Table XVII.

A cursory inspection of these data reveals that black is not a highly favored color, while blue, red, and yellow seem to carry strong appeal. Brown, somewhat surprisingly in view of Coles's finding, ranks close to these favored colors. But color in itself may be an unreliable indicator of an individual child's perceptions of people and things in his environment. Studies of the art work of Balinese children show that at very early ages, about six years, a child's artistic productions are extremely culture bound. One wonders about the extent to which the seeming lack of appeal of the basic color, black, might not be a function of the use of black lead pencils to draw outlines of figures and objects which then lend themselves to different colorations perhaps because of the child's need to express variety in his drawings.

While this is highly speculative, it may not be more so than the current speculations on the use of black as reflecting a child's color bias toward people.

It is clear that more work should be done in this area with appropriate controls for the subject matter of drawings and the level of children's technical skill in executing drawings, as well as the range of materials.

2. Children's Drawings. There was not enough time during the summer to obtain from the students using the lower grade unit a sufficient number of drawings in the three major reference groups -- the child's own group, a friend, and the Negro -- to make anything but a broad trend analysis of the drawings according to the criteria which were developed. As a reminder, these criteria are:

1. Degree of attention and care, as evidenced in color and line
2. Relationships of elements in the picture, e.g., figures in relation to buildings, other figures, etc.
3. Relative size of figures
4. Relative amount of detail
5. Subject matter

The evaluators were able to obtain complete drawing sets from 5 children. From these drawings there were no observable regularities which could lead to any general statements of drawings as being reflective of perceptions or attitudes toward different groups. However, there were two rather interesting findings which appeared in a number of drawings done by several of the children. It seems that less familiar figures, e.g., the Negro child, are done with much more detail than more familiar figures, such as the friend. On the other hand, the drawing of the child's own home was much more heavily detailed than the home of the Negro child or the friend.

One interpretation which seems reasonable is that the image a child has in his mind of familiar figures is so replete with detail that when he comes to draw a representation of this image, he does so with little detail because he requires minimal perceptual cues to match what he externalizes in the drawings with the image he has in his head. But when he draws something familiar, but something of his very own, his house, it could be that the great amount of detail is simply his way of showing what belongs to him -- an expression of proprietorship.

The use of children's drawings as an evaluative measure remains in a primitive stage of development. There is good reason to believe, however, that a teacher who is in continuous contact with a child and, therefore, who has an opportunity to discuss with him what the drawings mean, could apply the suggested criteria to gain insight into children's perceptions of themselves, their relationships with other people, and their environment. The technique appears definitely promising from the standpoint of feasibility and interpretability, but a great deal of work remains to be done in order to develop the precision which is required of an evaluative device designed to appraise initial states and changes from one point to another as a result of instructional intervention.

Interview II - Story Completion

Table IX

Question 2 - Social Distance: Order of Group Preference

Summary of Individual Choice

Name	White, brown-haired boy	White, blonde girl	Negro girl	White, blonde girl	White, blond boy	Chinese boy	Negro girl	Teacher
Albert	1	4	3	2				
Catherine	4	3	5	2	8	6	7	1
Danny	1	6	5	7	3	2	4	
Danny	1	8	3	2	7	5	6	4
David	1	3	2	4	5	7	6	
Filomena	4	3	2	1	6	7	5	
Fred	3	2	6	1	5	4	7	
Jose	1	4	7	5	3	2	6	
Jose	3	5	7	6	1	2	4	

Table IX Continued

Name	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h
Ligra	5	2	4	1	6	7	3	
Maria	7	1	3	2	5	6	4	
Maria	3	1	2		4	5	6	
Martha	3	7	2	1	5	6	4	
Richard	1	5	6	3	4	2	7	
Roger	7	5	6	4	1	3	2	
Sheila	7	2	3	1	6	4	5	
Wayne	1	5		4	2	3	6	

Table X

Question 2 - Social Distance: Order of Group Preference

Summary of Frequency of Choice

N = 17

Choice	White, brown-haired boy	White, blonde girl	Negro girl	White, blonde girl	White, blond boy	Chinese boy	Negro girl	Teacher
1	7	2		5	2	1		1
2		3	4	3	1	4	1	
3	4	3	3	1	4	2	1	
4	2	1	1	3	3	2	4	1
5	1	4	3	1	3	2	2	
6		1	3	1	2	3	5	
7	3	1	2	1	1	3	3	
8			1					

Interview II - Picture III

Table XI
Question 3 - Who Thinks Up the Best Game?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

	Frequency N = 17
Negro girl	0
White, dark-blonde girl	1
White, bright-blonde girl	6
Negro boy	0
White, brown-haired boy	2
Chinese girl	0
Negro girl	0
White, blond boy	8

Interview II - Picture III

Table XII

Question 4 - Who Wins the Game?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

	Frequency N = 17
Negro girl	0
White, dark-blonde girl	0
White, bright-blonde girl	0
Negro boy	3
White, brown-haired boy	2
Chinese girl	2
Negro girl	1
White, blond boy	8

Interview II - Picture III

Table XIII

Question 5 - Who is the Runner-Up in the Game?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

	Frequency N = 17
Negro girl	0
White, dark-blonde girl	0
White, bright-blonde girl	5
Negro boy	2
White, brown-haired boy	3
Chinese girl	2
Negro girl	5
White, blond boy	1

Interview II - Picture IV

Table XIV

Question 5 - Future Occupations

Summary of Frequency of Choice

Occupational Scale

	High Professional	Business Proprietors	Skilled workers	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	Other
Chinese boy	3		1	10		2
White, blonde girl	4		5	4	2	2
White, blonde girl	5		4	2	2	4
Negro boy	4		1	7	2	3
White, brown-haired boy	4			6	3	4
White, brown-haired girl	7		4	2	1	3
Negro girl	2		8	4		3

Interview II - Picture IV

Table XV

Question 7 - Who Is the Troublemaker?

Summary of Frequency of Choice

	Frequency N = 17
Chinese boy	4
White, blonde girl	3
White, blonde girl	0
Negro Boy	0
White, brown-haired boy	5
White, brown-haired girl	2
Negro girl	3

Interview III - Color Preference

Table XVI

Number of Rank Choices

N = 19

Rank Choice

Color					Median choice			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Black		2			5	3	4	2
Blue	2	3	4	4		3	1	
Brown	1		4	5		3	3	
Green	5		2		6	2	2	
Orange	2	1	1	4	2	3	4	
Red	5	7	3	1	2			1
Yellow	1	5	1	3	1	2	1	
Purple	1			1	1	1	1	1

Table XVII

Number of Rank Choices

Color	Above Median	Below Median
Black	2	14
Blue	13	4
Brown	10	6
Green	7	10
Orange	8	9
Red	15	3
Yellow	10	4
Purple	2	4

D. FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR EVALUATION

D. FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR EVALUATION

The work of the summer presents fairly clear-cut evidence that each of the devices, procedures, and exercises is relevant, informative, and hopefully feasible for direct classroom application. The general recommendation would be to try these procedures out over a longer period of time and in a regular classroom setting.

The stereotype-sorting test and the story-completion interview appeared to be the most successful in terms of student interest, teacher enthusiasm, and analyzability of results.

The sentence-completion measure, despite the general criticism of such measures because of difficulty in getting a deep-level response, nevertheless yielded useful information on some aspects of the unit. In particular, the simple concept statement, e.g., government, may be a really effective and efficient way to get at changes in conceptualization.

In summary, the evaluation staff has produced a basic repertoire of evaluative techniques and procedures supplying numerous promising leads to be taken in future field trials of the project materials and instructional methods.

V. PROJECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

Introduction

This bibliography is divided into four parts, as follows:

A. The Case for Teaching about Racial and Cultural Diversity at the K-6 Level

B. Background for the Teacher on:

  1. Race, Racism, Race Relations, and the Negro American
  2. Poverty: Its Relationship to Racial and Cultural Diversity in America
  3. Ethnic Groups in America
  4. Dealing With Children, Suburban and Inner-City

C. Especially Important and/or Little-Known Resource Materials for Use With Children

No attempt has been made to replicate in this bibliography the lists of textbooks, trade books, and other materials for children available from such sources as the Center for Urban Education, the NAACP, state department of education, publishing companies, the NEA, and local and national civil rights groups. Instead, this bibliography has been compiled with an eye to the preparation of teachers' workshops, particularly those under Title I and Title III of ESEA and Title IV of the Civil Rights Act. This is one reason, for instance, why all but one of the entries in Section A, "The Case for Teaching About Racial and Cultural Diversity at the K-6 Level," are either paperbacks or articles available at a low cost or are readily prepared in quantity through duplicating methods for distribution to teachers.

The Project staff strongly suggests that at least one paperback book from each section--and in the case of section B, from each subcategory--be given to each teacher attending a workshop, and that all the articles in the bibliography be duplicated in quantity sufficient for each teacher to have all of them to read at her leisure or to refer to at a later date. All of the articles in Section A, for instance, would provide an excellent packet of background reading prior to a workshop--excellent in both readability and realistic assessment of the pre-workshop free time generally available to an active teacher.

It is to be hoped, however, that the book-length and/or hardcover editions of works included in this bibliography will not be neglected. For instance, each teacher might be assigned the responsibility of reading one book-length work and writing a brief résumé with commentary for reproduction and distribution to the other teachers attending the workshop. Hopefully each teacher will at some point read at least one of the works listed by Baldwin, Botkin, Coles, Erikson, Handlin, Rollins or Roth, as these works convey a message about the human spirit which the soberest book of facts would be hard put to match in impact.

The Project staff by no means intends to convey the idea, through the focus of this bibliography, on teacher education that a preparatory or in-service workshop should revolve around mere reading. No more than a third of the work should consist of reading. Ideally, probably, a second third of a workshop should be sensitivity training in small groups; while the remaining third should be comprised of opportunities actually to observe and teach demonstration classes. However, as stated on p. 29 of Section II, C, 4, the "reading third" of a preparatory workshop

> "...should be devoted to an attempt to generate a personal sense of curiosity about, fascination with, and capacity for analysis of the multifaceted phenomenon of racial and cultural diversity in American history and contemporary life. This attempt should be geared to the teacher as a literate, compassionate, intellectually curious adult who needs information for her own use and comfort before she can be expected to deal with /these units/ with children in a stimulating or informative manner."

A. The Case for Teaching about Racial and Cultural Diversity at the K-6 Level

Books

Bruner, Jerome S. The Process of Education. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1960.

Clark, Kenneth B. Prejudice and Your Child. Boston: Beacon Press, 1963

Gibson, John S., and Kvaraceus, William C., The Development of Instructional Materials Pertaining to Race and Culture in American Life, Medford, Massachusetts: The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University. Available from: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, Micro Photo Division, Bell and Howell, 1700 Shaw Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44112, in microfiche or hard copy. Use order No. ED-010-029.

Joyce, Bruce R. Strategies for Elementary Social Studies Education. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965.

Miel, Alice, with Edwin Kiester, Jr. *The Shortchanged Children of Suburbia.* New York: The Institute of Human Relations Press of the American Jewish Committee, 165 East 56th Street, New York, New York 10022, 1967. (75¢)

Sloan, Irving. *The Negro in Modern American History Textbooks.* Chicago: The American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO, 716 North Rush Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611. Item No. V-1. ($1.00 single copy, $10.00 for 25 copies)

Articles

Baldwin, James. "A Talk to Teachers," *Saturday Review,* December 21, 1963.

Black, Hillel. "What Our Children Read," *Saturday Evening Post,* October 7, 1967.

Bunge, William. "Racism in Geography," *Crisis* (NAACP Quarterly), Spring 1965.

Dennis, Jack. "The Study of the Role of the School in Political Socialization," (mimeo.) The Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts 02155, April 10, 1965.

Fried, M.H. "The Four-Letter Word That Hurts," *Saturday Review,* October 2, 1965.

Larrick, Nancy. "The All-White World of Children's Books," *Saturday Review,* September 11, 1965.

Miel, Alice, with Edwin Kiester, Jr. "The Shortchanged Children," *New York Times Magazine*, April, 1967, Part I.

Sterling, Dorothy. Untitled talk to teachers at a University of Wisconsin summer institute on July 26, 1967. Available from: Zenith Book Series Editor, Doubleday & Company, Inc., 277 Park Avenue, New York, New York 10017.

The following section of the project bibliography is divided into four parts:

1. Race, Racism, Race Relations, and the Negro American
2. Poverty: Its Relationship to Racial and Cultural Diversity in America
3. Ethnic Groups in America
4. Dealing with Children, Suburban and Inner-City

This division is largely for the sake of organizational clarity, but also with the hope that all of the above subject areas will be covered in planning a teachers' workshop in preparation for the teaching of either of the Project's two units. It has been the Project's experience that teachers who are not given an opportunity to explore for themselves those aspects of these question-riddled subjects approach the teaching of the Project's two units with ambivalence, intellectual confusion, and lack of enthusiasm. The Project considers it a basic minimum prerequisite to teaching either unit that teachers should be informed on these, some of the most pressing problems and issues of our society. At the same time, it is hoped that some teachers will arrive at a state of personal intellectual excitement as a result of depth exposure to some of the selections recommended. Thus it is for a good reason that such diverse items as the novel by Rollins, essays by Baldwin, and Gosset's exposé of the historiography of a bugaboo term in our society -- "race" -- are included. Rather than an attempt to be exhaustive, this bibliography of background for the teacher is designed to provide variety and stimulation.

For instance, one could not emerge from Section 2, "Poverty...," having read The Other America: Poverty in the United States and immersed oneself for an hour in the photographic essay, The Shame of a Nation, untouched by recognition that the richest nation in the world has some sores to heal and some explaining to do.

From Section 3, "Ethnic Groups in America," one should choose any one of the first five selections and the last, Call It Sleep, a novel of the childhood of an immigrant Jewish boy in New York City. This novel, or any one of many other novels of its type by immigrant Americans, should be required reading to supplement and/or offset an intellectual comprehension of the effect of America on us--immigrants all at one time or another. Of the factual accounts, Oscar Handlin's most nearly approaches poetry.

Section 4, "Dealing with Children...," is a catch-all category. It suggests that the so-called "disadvantaged" child, to whom a teacher may be preparing to teach these units, is one with rich differences which can be capitalized upon educationally if the reasons for the differences are understood rather than condemned. Inclusion of Miel's The Shortchanged Children of Suburbia denies that the offspring of college-educated parents in the $25,000 house are models of everything that is hopeful about American children. Of all the items included in section 4, this one is a "must" and is available for 75¢ from the Institute of Human Relations of the American Jewish Committee. A high-interest article, based on this study, appeared in the New York Times Magazine of April, 1967, under the title "The Shortchanged Children," and would be a good basis for group discussion.

B. Background for the Teacher On:

1. Race, Racism, Race Relations, and the Negro American

Alpenfels, Ethel J. Sense and Nonsense About Race. New York: Friendship Press, 1957.

Baldwin, James. The Fire Next Time. New York: Dell Publishing Company, Inc. (A Delta Book), 1963.

Baldwin, James. Nobody Knows My Name. New York: Dell Publishing Company, Inc. (A Dell Book), 1963.

Bennett, Lerone, Jr. Before the Mayflower: A History of the Negro in America, 1619-1962. Chicago: Johnson Publishing Company, 1962.

Botkin, B.A., Ed. Lay My Burden Down: A Folk History of Slavery. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965.

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C. Especially Important and/or Little Known Resource Materials For Use With Children

While this section may represent some repetition of the bibliographies which accompany each unit, it is only to reinforce the singularity of the repeated items. For every item included here, there are undoubtedly three of equal importance and quality which have not yet come to the attention of the Project staff. Generally, however, any one of the items which follow are listed here because it (1) was very recently published, (2) fills what was up until recently a particularly large vacuum with respect to type of materials for children, and/or (3) will lead the user to other sources.

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Films and Filmstrips

The History of the American Negro. Three sound black-and-white films or eight black-and-white filmstrips, available from Text-Film Division, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Webster Grove, Missouri.

I Wonder Why. Five-minute film, based on book by Shirley Burden, which is distributed by The Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith.

Minorities Have Made America Great. Six color filmstrips and 6-12" records for $52.00 from Warren Schloat Productions, Inc., Palmer Lane West, Pleasantville, New York 10570. Two filmstrips are about Negro Americans, and one each about Jews, Italians, Germans, and the Irish.

Records

The Glory of Negro History. 1-12" 33 1/3 R.P.M. record. Narration by Langston Hughes. Voices of Ralph Bunche, Mary McLeod Bethune, and others. Record, $5.95; accompanying book Outstanding American Negroes, $3.50, from Educational Record Sales, 157 Chambers Street, New York, New York 10007.

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Appendix A

"Integrated Teaching Materials: Where Are They?"

by

Astrid C. Anderson

Reprinted from Scholastic Teacher, February 17, 1967.

INTEGRATED TEACHING MATERIALS: WHERE ARE THEY?

by

Astrid C. Anderson

Miss Anderson is a research assistant on a K-6 curriculum project sponsored by the USOE. The project is under the direction of Dr. John S. Gibson at the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts.

It is not only the inner-city teacher who is looking for innovative, integrated teaching materials with an intergroup relations theme. Even teachers in all-white or near-white suburbia are eagerly seeking instructional materials which will help students cope with the realities of a racially and culturally diverse society. This search is a frustrating experience, strikingly illuminating the theory of cultural lag. It is remarkable that such a lag exists between teaching materials and the reality of racial and cultural life in America. But until the gap is filled, teachers will undoubtedly welcome some suggestions about where to find what _is_ available now.

First, there is the textbook. Everywhere there are school boards ready to "adopt" integrated reading and social studies textbooks from kindergarten through grade six. It is hoped that the scarcity of completed series ready for the market will not discourage them from buying these series piecemeal -- as they are completed. The _Skyline Series_, published by Webster Division of McGraw-Hill, the _Bank Street Readers_ by Macmillan, and the _Language-Experience Reading Series_, by the Chandler Publishing Company of San Francisco, are three examples of reading series in various stages of progress. In each case, pre-primers and primers are already available. While these three series vary considerable in approach, content, and mode of illustration, they are all integrated and imaginative -- not mere "color-me-brown" attempts.

In the elementary social studies textbook field, the work of three publishers merits special attention: the 1966 revised editions of L. W. Singer's social studies series; the 1964 revised edition of Follett's first-grade social studies book; and Holt, Rinehart & Winston's _Urban Social Studies Series_, with black-and-white photographs of several true-to-life New York City families making it particularly appealing and real.

It is one thing to produce a book for the K, 1, 2, or 3 grade levels which is imaginative, innovative, integrated, and which conveys valuable ideas about and experiences of multi-ethnic and racial living. But the true mettle of these publishing efforts will be put to the test at the upper-grade levels. The publishers must draw upon the talents of social scientists from all social disciplines who have the breadth and perspective to make valuable contributions to elementary social studies. Perhaps, too, in order to be scholarly and yet readable, social studies books might well abandon the customary Mayflower-to-Montgomery or caveman-to-Castro sweeping approach to history for 10- and 11-year-olds in favor of intensive, dramatic study of selected historical themes.

What About Trade Books?

The realm of trade books for children seems in many ways to be ahead of the textbook publishing world. The Lincoln Filene Center project made extensive use of several children's books such as Your Skin and Mine (Thos. Y. Crowell, 1965), Look at Your Eyes (Crowell, 1965), Red Man, White Man, African Chief: The Story of Skin Color (Lerner, 1963), Fun for Chris (Albert Whitman, 1965), and I Wonder Why (Doubleday, 1963). These books are among the few existing ones which deal directly with race and skin color difference for young children.

More children's books dealing with the city are appearing now. City Rhythms (Bobbs-Merrill, 1965) is an exemplary one. Interested teachers may write to the Center for Urban Education, 33 West 42nd Street, New York, New York for a copy of a bibliography of trade books for the K-6 level, entitled The American Negro in Children's Literature. The first copy is free and subsequent copies are 25¢ each. This bibliography of trade books is critically annotated, organized by grade and reading level, and includes such valuable specifics for the teacher as price and publisher of each book listed.

In the world of films and filmstrips dealing with intergroup relations, little has changed over the past 20 years. There is something pedagogically ineffective about the approach to racial and ethnic groups which dwells exclusively -- or even primarily -- on the idea of "brotherhood" or on the "melting pot" theory. McGraw-Hill, however, has made two attempts at presenting Negro history on film. One is an eight-filmstrip series entitled The History of the American Negro, and the other is a series of three sound films which were produced after, and on the basis of, the eight filmstrips. Even though both were intended for junior and senior high age levels, they would probably be useful at the fifth- or sixth-grade level if they were preceded by classroom discussion of some of the events and people featured in the films. The book I Wonder Why (Doubleday, 1963) has been made into a five-minute black-and-white film which can be rented or purchased from the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. There is some question of its appropriateness for all-Negro classrooms, but its value as an open-end conversation-starter on the subject of skin-color difference in an all-white classroom has been demonstrated.

Recordings of the music of the Civil Rights movement are available, notably through Folkways/Scholastic Records. Highlight Radio Productions in Detroit produced, in 1963, a 33-rpm record for distribution through the Pepsi-Cola Co. entitled Adventures in Negro History, which might profitably be used at the fifth- or sixth-grade level following coverage of some of the people and events. Neither this record nor the filmstrip series should be used at the fifth- or sixth-grade level without classroom discussion, since both cover too much material too fast.

Three other teaching devices were used by the project: The Urban Education Series, published by John Day (1965); the Basic Social Studies Discussion Pictures, produced by Row, Peterson (1958); and two families -- one Negro and one white -- of five inch-high rubber dolls obtainable from Creative Playthings of Princeton, N. J. The Urban Education albums are large 18" x 18" folios, accompanied by an extremely well-written teacher's guide; while they are expensive, a complete set could readily circulate among teachers in a school. Although the series was designed primarily as a medium for teaching language arts in an urban environment, the vivid, large black-and-white photographs of urban scenes are replete with excellent provocations for social studies discussions in the area of racial and cultural diversity at any age level. Row, Peterson's Basic Social Studies Discussion Pictures lack integrated illustration, but they begin to fill a great void in the area of materials for the early grades which attempt to deal directly with the feelings of children -- of sibling rivalry, need for attention, and need for success experiences. It has become increasingly clear in the course of the Lincoln Filene Center project that the social studies unit on racial and cultural diversity in American life which neglects to involve children in the examination of their own feelings (the "bad" along with the "good") and cultural biases, is an educational experience sadly lacking in potential for growth and unsentimental understanding.

The Creative Playthings' doll families have been useful, first of all, in discovering what children think about skin-color difference and the cultural values its "racial" associations connote. The experience of listening to young children tell stories about the Negro family, or better yet the Negro and white families together, can be very instructive for the teacher who wants some idea of her class's unverbalized ideas and preconceptions.

For the teacher who feels the need for a more secure grounding in this area -- or who would like to be convinced that early childhood is the time to begin dealing with racial and cultural diversity in the school, several paperback publications might be recommended: a pamphlet soon to be published by the Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, by Dr. Jean D. Grambs of the University of Maryland, on the case to be made for, and the use of, teaching materials in intergroup relations in the school; Race Awareness in Young Children (Addison-Wesley, 1952); The Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship (McGraw-Hill, 1965); Race: The History of an Idea in America (Schocken Books, 1965); and The Uprooted (Grosset & Dunlap Universal Library, 1951).

Appendix B

The Process Approach to Political Science

by

John S. Gibson

Reprinted from Political Science in the Social Studies, by Donald H. Riddle and Robert E. Cleary (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies 36th Yearbook, 1966)

THE PROCESS APPROACH*

by

John S. Gibson, Director

The Lincoln Filene Center
for Citizenship and Public Affairs
Tufts University

> President Kennedy mixed a strong defense of his space program with some old fashioned earth-bound politics today as he opened a two-day tour of Texas.[1]

> President John Fitzgerald Kennedy was shot and killed by an assassin today. . . . He died of a wound in the brain caused by a rifle bullet that was fired at him as he was riding through downtown Dallas in a motorcade. . . . Vice President Lyndon Baines Johnson, who was riding in the third car behind Mr. Kennedy's, was sworn in as 35th President of the United States 99 minutes after Mr. Kennedy's death.[2]

The central purpose of President Kennedy's trip to Texas in November 1963 was political. He hoped to mend some broken political fences in Texas, a key state in the forthcoming Presidential election less than one year later. But the tragic assassination changed all of this. A President was killed; another took his place within the structure of the American government. The national policy of the land itself took a different hue as Lyndon B. Johnson assumed command of the decision-making process within the governmental structure. Political values and attitudes among the American people underwent changes; new factors were introduced into the political process of 1964, producing a dramatic mandate for the new President to continue in office. Irrespective of the horror of November 22, 1963, the process of governing rolled on. As tragic as it was, the assassination itself was only another manifestation of the principle that process is the essence of politics and governing. Indeed, "process" and "political science" are hardly separable.

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[*] Chapter V in Riddle and Cleary's Political Science in the Social Studies (Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 36th Yearbook, 1966)

[1] The New York Times, November 22, 1963

[2] The New York Times, November 23, 1963

Although it would be difficult to claim that political science has a "process school," many highly reputable political scientists have, over the years, viewed the dynamic flow of people, politics, and power as a fundamental and integrating feature of the discipline.[3] Process, in other words, is where the action is within the framework of a polity and among polities. Motion, whether vigorous or sluggish, is the cardinal feature of the process approach to political science. One is tempted to draw parallels between the process of governing as represented by people, politics, and power and the role that blood and the nervous system play within the human body.

Let us put the matter this way. That process which leads to the shaping and application of policy within and among polities is the process of governing. A polity is a governmental entity such as a municipality; a federal unit such as a state in the United States; a county; or a nation-state. Within each polity are six components essential to the governing process: the people who are governed, authoritative officials, a political (selection) process, a structure of government, a policy-making process, and authoritative policy. Power, or the capacity to shape the values or behavior of others, may be widely distributed among all six components or may be concentrated in one or a few components. The process of governing involves all kinds of interrelationships among these components as policy is formulated and applied within the polity and in relations among polities (e.g., federal-state relationships in the United States or relations between the United States and France). The process approach to political science, therefore, is concerned with the flow of attitudes and judgments, politics, decision-making, and policy itself in the authoritative regulation and allocation of things of value among the people and institutions within polities and in relations among polities.[4] Included in the process approach is the crucial role that power plays in governing. The approach likewise fully appreciates behavioral characteristics of both the governed and authoritative officials. Structure becomes secondary to the stress on process, although the governing process flows through a structure (polity) and among structures (polities) much as blood and the nervous system do with a structure (the human body). The six basic and interlocking components of the governing process of a polity may be visualized in the following manner.

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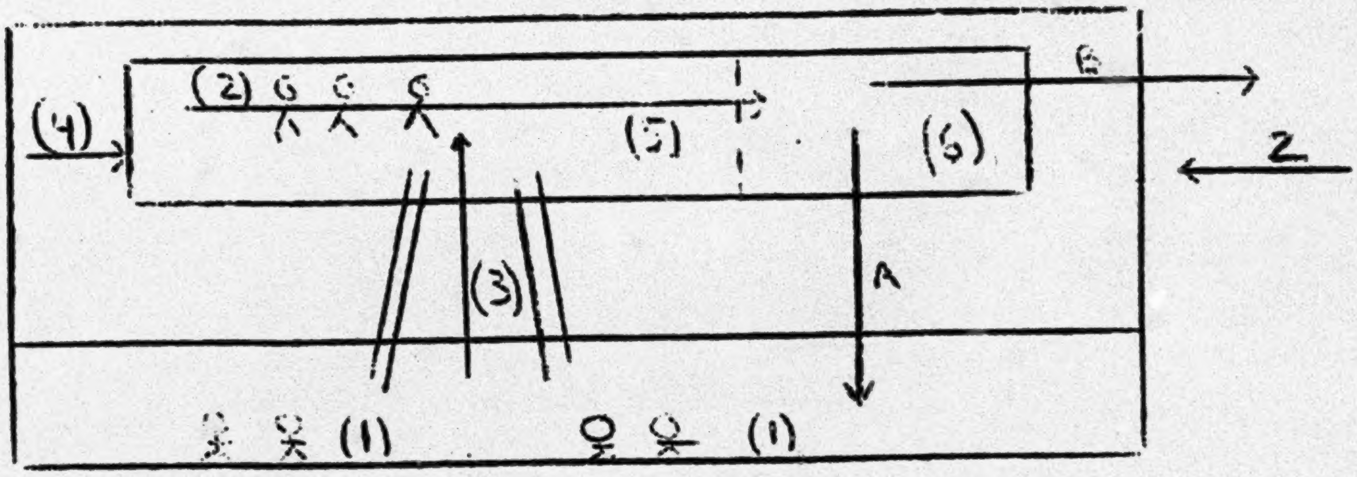
[3] See, in particular, Bentley, Arthur F., The Process of Government. Bloomington, Ind.: The Principia Press, Inc.(reissue from original publication of 1908), 1949; Easton, David, The Political System. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1953; Easton, A Framework for Political Analysis. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965; Lerner, Max, "The Social Process" in Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Volume 14, pp. 148-157; and Truman, David B., The Governmental Process. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1951.

[4] See Easton's discussion of this concept in "The Authoritative Allocation of Values for Society" in The Political System, op. cit., p. 129ff.

A POLITY



(1) Members of the national society, the people or the governed.

(2) Authoritative officials who govern, and who may or may not be subjected to the same authoritative policy as the governed.

(3) The political process or the procedure which elevates officials to their positions of authority and which helps to shape the formulation and application of official policy.

(4) The structure of government, in which the officials make authoritative decisions and which, by its nature, is policy itself.

(5) The shaping of authoritative policy, or policy-making.

(6) The laws, rules, and regulations (authoritative policies) which serve to regulate people and institutions within the polity and which allocate things of value with a view to furthering the security and well-being of the polity (as determined by many variables), or official policy, and application

thereof by officials. Policy is both domestic (a) and foreign (b), although the latter is under less control of authoritative officials than the former. The external arrow (z) is the impact and operation of the policy of an external polity upon the diagramed polity.

The arrows in the above diagram imply a governing process of a democracy (especially the upward arrow in (3), which connotes a democratic political process). Naturally, the diagram can be constructed so as to illustrate different ideological (belief) systems). The diagram can be constructed in a simplistic or complex manner, depending upon the nature and level of learning of those for whom it is intended as a pedagogical tool. It should be added that the six basic components of the governing process are all intertwined with each other, and in the above diagram, there is no intention to separate them artificially. Furthermore, it should be clear that the current of power can charge each component but is a force which cannot easily be depicted.

Let us now examine some basic factors of each of the six components of the governing process within a polity. We have chosen the nation-state as the central polity to be examined as the process of governing moves in and among these components.[5]

THE GOVERNED

The people in the national society, or the governed, are the alpha and omega of the governing process, irrespective of ideology. Heinz Eulau has written that "the root is man," and "the goal is man."[6] Perhaps one of the most crucial problems in governing and indeed in the annals of political philosophy is this: To what degree can or should the governed regulate their lives and allocate things of value among themselves and/or to what degree should official policy perform this function of regulation and allocation of things of value? Many variables within and among states have helped to determine this fundamental issue. Policy and decisions of authoritative officials, the civic culture of the governed, history, geography, the economic system and its resources and technology, ideology, and patterns of world politics all tend to shape the degree to which official policy will or will not intervene in the lives and destinies of the people of the state.

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[5] The reader is requested to refer occasionally to the diagram on page 3 in relating these components to the broader process of governing.

[6] Eulau, Heinz, The Behavioral Persuasion in Politics. New York: Random House, 1963. pp. 3 and 133.

As one examines this component called "the governed," one must take full account of the national society's "civic culture," or those attributes of the people of the state which provide insights as to how they behave in a civic manner and what the people can do (and what can be done with them) with respect to relations between them on the one hand and authoritative, regulative policy on the other.[7] What are the central attributes of the governed, especially in terms of their values and institutions, education and religion, economic condition and ideology? How do they become socialized politically, or how do they acquire those patterns of values and attitudes early in life which determine the quality and quantity of their political participation (or alienation) when they can participate in the political process (if, indeed, they can at all)? What of nationalism, or the corporate identity between the people and the nation-state of which they are citizens, or, perhaps, of their origin? These and other factors relating to the governed help to determine their role in the governing process and, of greater importance, the degree to which official policy shapes and conditions their everyday lives.

AUTHORITATIVE OFFICIALS

Authoritative officials are those people in the polity who have the capacity to shape the values of others through the formulation and application of official policy in the process of regulating people and allocating things of value. They generally emerge from the ranks of the governed of the polity and thus usually share with the governed the same historical heritage and culture. Due to elections, death, personal decision, and other reasons, authoritative officials come and go and are therefore instruments of inevitable process.

Authoritative officials are usually found in one of five categories: elected (such as President Johnson or Prime Minister Gandhi), pre-emptive (such as

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[7] See Almond, Gabriel A., and Verba, Sidney, The Civic Culture. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1965. "The political (or civic) culture of a nation is the particular distribution of patterns of orientation toward political objects (state, government, authoritative officials, parties, policies) among the members of the nation." p. 13.

President Nasser or Premier Chou En-lai), hereditary (Queen Elizabeth or Prince Rainier), appointed (Secretary of State Rusk or Premier Pompidou), or professional (members of the civil and foreign services or the janitor in city hall). Naturally, there are combinations of these categories, especially of professional and appointed officials (such as Chief Justice Warren or the high school social studies teacher).

Of particular importance in studying authoritative officials in time or polity is the psychological development of the person, his past and present behavioral patterns, and his political demands and expectations. Consider the governing process in England between 1660 and 1701. How could you chart its course without having solid insights into those factors which molded the personalities and behavioral characteristics of Charles II and William of Orange? Calvin Coolidge and Franklin Delano Roosevelt both served as President of the United States, but the roles of both in this post could not be understood without an examination of those behavioral forces which shaped their respective interpretations of how presidential power should be employed within the governing process.[8]

THE POLITICAL PROCESS

Within the totality of the governing process, the political system comprises a sub-system. Basically, the political process is that procedure which elevates the principal governing officials to their positions of authority within the governmental structure, keeps them there or casts them out, and helps to shape the dimensions and substance of authoritative policy through the decision-making process. It might be simpler to refer to it as the "selection process," but, as it is so frequently identified with politics, political scientists do not usually do so. The political process is the mainspring of the governing process and is constantly in motion as it pulsates throughout the polity and among the basic components of the governing process. When he went to Texas in November 1963, President Kennedy was engaging in the political process and looking toward November 1964. But an assassination of a head of state or government, or a successful revolution, is also a political act in a sense, because both have the effect of bringing about a change of authoritative officials, and for the purpose, usually, of altering in some way official policy. One very significant feature of the political process in a democracy is that it abhors violent and deviant political procedures.

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[8] Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr., draws many similar parallels between Presidents Eisenhower and Kennedy in his "personal memoir" of Kennedy's administration, A Thousand Days. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1965.

A comparison of the political processes in the democratic and totalitarian state helps to identify some of the important characteristics of this variable sub-system. In the democracy, two or more political parties vie with each other in seeking to place into authoritative positions in the government officials who will reflect the demands and expectations of their adherents. The democratic political process is characterized by a political process *within* political parties where candidates for public office within the party seek to gain the party's backing for that inter-political process of competition between and/or among parties. In the United States presidential campaign, for instance, the *intra-party political process* in 1960 saw Senator Kennedy running against other Democratic party candidates in state primaries and at the Los Angeles convention. Once he secured the party's approval of his candidacy for President, the furor of the *inter-party political process* was fully launched as Senator Kennedy fought with the Republicans' Richard Nixon for the presidency. The democracy thus has periodic and free elections in which multi-political parties back candidates for authoritative positions in government, candidates who represent the broad values and attitudes of those who subscribe to the general views of the party.

Politics in the totalitarian state is generally characterized by only one "party" which represents the views and ideology of the small and exclusive power elite of the state and which does not permit any organized political party to compete with it. As in the U.S.S.R., elections may occur with stark regularity, but there is no opposition party, and all the instruments of public media, because they are controlled by those occupying authoritative positions in government, are forbidden to support anyone not on the official slate. On the other hand, a vigorous intra-party political process may well take place within the monopolistic party in the totalitarian state as members of this party fight for places on the party's ballot. Another example of this type of competition is seen in "one-party" states in the United States.

The political process not only elevates aspirants to high office in government; it is also an active, creative, and sometimes destructive force in shaping policy in the decision-making process within government. The United States Congress is organized along party lines, and Democrats and Republicans alike not infrequently base their decision-making on party interest and power considerations rather than on what is best for the security and well-being of the nation. The political powers of the American President are many and varied as he seeks to mold official policy along the lines he feels best for the nation or party, or both.

In practically all polities, there is an important, indirect political process which is reflected in the activities of political interest groups. In the United States, the American Farm Bureau Federation speaks for millions of farmers in the halls of government, while the AFL-CIO pushes policy proposals among legislators on behalf of almost 15 million members of organized labor. The American Medical Association, the American Legion, thousands of trade organizations, and other political interest groups in an indirect but forceful manner -- one anticipated by the First Amendment to the United States Constitution -- seek to guide official policy toward the goals of their organizations in numerous ways. One should also add that private officials, through many and complex channels, seek to influence the shaping of public policy. The entire political process, therefore, involves interlocking and often competing patterns of influence and power, directed for the most part toward placing people in office as officials, and affecting the kinds of authoritative decisions they make. The political process is therefore the driving force of the larger governing process itself. It is that broad (or narrow) conveyor belt which places people into authoritative positions in the governmental structure; it infuses the decision-making process with power and purpose; and it manifests the ideological dimensions of the polity.

THE STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

When we use the word "government," we immediately get into semantic difficulties. We say that the "government" does this, when actually we really are saying that authoritative officials are devising this policy or applying another. In Great Britain the "government" is the majority party in the House of Commons, which simultaneously is the ministry of the monarchy. Actually, government is the legal structure or framework of a polity, usually constituted by or evolved from a constitution, a series of statutes, and/or deeply ingrained traditions about how the people in the polity should be governed. Practically all polities have some basic constitutions or set of laws and traditions which describe the goals of governing within the polity, the powers of the authoritative officials, the process of policy-making, amendment or "growth" procedures, certain rights of the governed and the officials, and many other matters pertaining to the total governing process. In brief, a government is a structure in which authoritative officials formulate and apply policy and which serves as the legal personage of the polity itself.[9]

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[9] In international law, for example, the government is the state's legal person. States are constant factors and persons in international law; however, governments are the legal voices and personalities of the states. Changes in government require recognition, but the state does not.

As a structure, the governmental framework usually specifies how policy is to be formulated, implemented through legislation, and applied. The United States Constitution, for example, specifically separates these powers as among the executive branch and the legislature or Congress. The role of the American judiciary in interpreting much of federal policy evolved through fiat and tradition. Some polities, such as Great Britain, do not provide for such a clear-cut separation of power. Most students of political science, parenthetically, are quite familiar with such structures of government as the confederation, the federation, and the unitary framework. While these traditional governmental structures require no amplification here, it is well to point out that inter-polity relationships in federations such as the United States involve a complex interweaving of governing process at many levels.

Although the constitution of most polities sets forth, on paper, how policy is to be formulated and applied, the real power may not reflect the established rules. Such is the case in the U.S.S.R. and other Communist-dominated states. In fact, under the regimes of super dictators as Hitler and Stalin, it would be artificial to distinguish between *the* chief authoritative official and the government. These two dictators *were* the government in so far as broad policy was concerned.

As a structure, the framework of government itself is subject to process. In the United States the structure may be altered by amendment (24 to date), developmental tradition (political parties), legislation (the regulatory agencies), and judicial interpretation (Brown v. The Board of Education of Topeka, 1954). A basic structure may endure for a long period of time (the United States) or may change many times (Germany). A governmental structure may be fashioned after the tastes of one man (the French Fifth Republic). *Government* and authoritative officials must be distinguished, especially in a behavioral sense. We have noted that the United States Constitution provides for a President, and in a symbolic sense, there is a chair in the White House for the President. But, Presidents come and go, and each views his constitutional mandate in his own unique manner. One should also add that the structure of government really says little about ideology. The Prime Minister in Great Britain has enormous powers, as Winston Churchill once noted; however, this official is fully aware of the force of public opinion. The constitution of the Soviet Union is quite democratic in tone, but in effect, it is the First Secretary of the Communist Party who wields the real power in that totalitarian state. In brief, then, many variables such as history, geography, ideology, and culture really determine how policy is shaped and applied by officials within the governmental structure to regulat the people and institutions of the polity and to allocate things of value. Too often in political science have scholars and students alike concentrated upon governmental structures and disregarded the process of governing within the polity and all the variables affecting it.

POLICY-MAKING

Policy-making within the polity is another sub-process within the scope of the larger governing process. Most official policy is formulated under the leadership of the principal officials of the polity, those who comprise the polity's power elite. Usually, but not always, they are identifiable. In the legislature of the democracy, policy is implemented through a legislative process and, following endorsement by the leading executive official, is then applied within the polity and placed into motion with respect to relations with other polities, although the machinery of application often does not function smoothly.

The United States is one of the few nation-states in which the supreme judicial body has authority to interpret the constitutionality of much of official policy.[10] In most instances, the constitution of the polity or that body of statutes and traditions which combine to define the constitutional system also specifies in broad outline the procedures of the policy-making process within the polity.

Policy-making constantly involves decisions which must be made by authoritative officials, and these decisions are based on considerations both of the wisdom of the policy that is being considered and the political power relationships affecting the decision-makers. It is of little benefit, therefore, for a student to commit to memory the "22 steps" (or whatever number) in the policy-making process in the American democracy without taking into full account the bargaining and trading among decision-makers, political demands and expectations intertwined in the structure and substance of policy, and the manifold pressures upon authoritative officials exerted by political interest groups and others with considerable political influence. Policy-making is particularly complex in the democracy, where constant compromises must be made so that policy itself can represent a fairly broad national consensus of the governed.

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[10] See Cardozo, Justice Benjamin, The Nature of the Judicial Process. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1921.

POLICY: SUBSTANCE AND APPLICATION

Official policy includes those laws, statutes, and official judgments which authoritative officials have formulated and applied on behalf of the polity itself. Policy thus expresses at any one time how people and institutions within the polity are to be regulated, how things of value are to be allocated, and what relations between the polity and other polities are or should be.[11] With respect to the nation-state, the national policy has two dimensions, domestic and foreign. The former is that policy applicable to people and institutions within the jurisdiction of the nation, while the latter is concerned with relations between and among other nations. Both are the result of the policy-making process within the polity, and each has a strong impact upon the other. Authoritative officials within the state have far greater control over the application and administration of domestic policy than over foreign policy, as many variables external to the nation affect the capacity of foreign policy to achieve its desired results.

In any event, both domestic and foreign policy seek to advance the security and well-being of the central interests of the nation, its territory, its people and their values and institutions, the economic system and resources, and the sovereignty of the nation. As broad goals of national policy, security and well-being are naturally subjected to different interpretations among nations, depending upon the policy of the officials, history, geography, culture, the quality and quantity of economic resources, demands of the governed, the condition of world politics, and ideology. Nevertheless, the basic policy of practically all nations may be cast in terms of how they, especially their authoritative officials, view the national needs for security and well-being. The former Prime Minister of Great Britain, Sir Alec Douglas-Hume put the matter this way:

> When paleolithic man lived on lizards, he had two jobs; to provide security for his family and food for them to eat. Things haven't changed much. The basic objective of our foreign policy is to provide security and food with which to feed ourselves.

Although it is difficult to judge the quality of policy of any polity, the quantitative factor is quite revealing. In a symbolic sense, the size of the box representing policy in the diagram on page 3 indicates the extent to which domestic policy seeks to regulate people and institutions and allocate things of value. We noted earlier that the regulatory and allocative functions of policy will tend to be applied and intervene in the lives of the governed when the latter cannot or will not regulate themselves and allocate things of value in the manner generally desired by those occupying authoritative positions within the government. The Federal Food and Drug Act of 1906, for instance, was passed because the meat packers of Chicago were not properly regulating their own industrial processes and, in so doing, were adversely affecting the welfare of millions of meat consumers. The United States Civil Rights Act of 1964 may well not have been necessary had many American people regulated themselves in a manner as to advance responsible and compassionate race relations in this nation. This is, of course, a simplistic analysis of the relationship between the purposes of policy and the capacity of the governed to regulate themselves and to allocate things of value. The latter, however, always will have a direct bearing upon the size and scope of policy itself. The size of the governed, conditions of affluence and scarcity, the complexities of modern civilization, conditions external to the polity, and many other factors likewise affect the relationship between policy and the lives and destinies of the governed.

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[11] David Easton points out that "A policy . . . consists of a web of decisions and actions that allocates values." Easton, The Political System, op. cit., p. 130.

The matter of inter-polity relationships is vast and complex. Policy within a state in the United States, for example, will be greatly affected by the policies of the federal government, by municipal and state relationships, as well as by the web of municipal-federal policies and politics. It should be abundantly clear that one cannot understand the governing process by focusing exclusively upon the process within any one polity. When one views the powerful impact of international relations upon the governing process within the United States and notes that over one-half of the annual American budget is earmarked for national defense, governing in this nation can hardly be studied within the confines of the symbolic box on page 3. All six components of the governing process of any polity, therefore, are influenced by the external role of the polity's policy and, most certainly, by the policy of external polities upon it.

Within this context, it is important to note that within the international system of nation-states, there is no governing process comparable to a governing process within local, state, or national polities. There is no international regulatory mechanism or policy to allocate things of value among nation-states. All nation-states must seek from some other nation-states valued items for advancing national security and well-being, but this quest takes place in a milieu of power relationships among states and rests largely upon the power dimensions of each state and patterns of reciprocity among states. We thus might characterize the international community as a vast but primitive market system in which the buying and selling, giving and taking, offering and grabbing of items which states consider essential to national security and well-being take place. Although international law and international organizations, such as the United Nations, provide some norms and structures to accommodate better the members of the international community in the relations they necessarily must have with each other, the regulatory and allocative processes within the international community are elemental indeed. Nationalism and sovereignty have long frustrated the pleas of many that an institutionalized and centralized mechanism be constituted within the international community to harmonize the interests and demands of nation-states. For the time being, the United Nations and the purposes and principles of this global organization as set forth in Articles One and Two of the Charter provide the best possible hope for stabilizing and uplifting the processes of international relations.

Concluding a discussion of the six major components of the governing process by outlining some of the principal aspects of official policy indicates the circular nature of the process (as does the diagram on page 3). The governing process, of course, cannot be adequately diagrammed by only a few arrows here and there which represent the relation between one component and another. The inter-relatedness of all the components and the many sub-processes within the larger governing process of the polity must continually be emphasized. For analytic purposes, it has been useful to examine the six components separately; however, the point has constantly been made that they all function in many and varied relations with each other. What happened in Dallas on November 22, 1963, represents only one of countless examples of how this process functions.

A. Lawrence Lowell once noted that:

> In order to understand the organic laws of a political (or governing) system, it is necessary to examine it as a whole, and seek to discover not only the true functions of each part, but also its influence upon every other part, and its relation to the equilibrium of the complete organism.

Or, again, to refer to David Easton's framework for the discipline of political science,

> . . . all parts of the political (or governing) process depend upon all other parts, and collectively they all determine the state of the political system (or polity) in the same way that celestial bodies help to determine

> one another's position and general configuration of the universe.[12]

In brief, then, the process of governing includes elements of permanency and elements of change; however, the factors affecting change, especially people, power, values, officials, and policy, deserve our close attention as we endeavor better to understand the science of politics and to play our roles as citizens in a more effective manner.

OVERVIEW OF THE PROCESS TO THE STUDY OF POLITICAL SCIENCE

The process design involves the interrelationships between and among the fundamental components of governing within a polity and among polities. This approach, therefore, inplies an essential structure for the discipline of political science and is one which can be visualized in an elementary or increasingly complex manner. The process principle also lends itself to various pedagogical designs which are useful to the teaching and learning about the fundamentals of political science. It may be of some value to amplify these aspects of the process of governing.

The Structure of a Discipline

Jerome Bruner was hardly the first to emphasize the importance of the essential structure of an academic discipline; however, his notable work, The Process of Education, contains much wisdom on this subject.[13] Of particular importance is his point that

> Perhaps the most basic thing that can be said about human memory, after a century of intensive research, is that unless detail is placed into a structured pattern, it is rapidly forgotten. Detailed material is conserved in memory by the use of simplified ways of representing it. These simplified representations have what may be called a "regenerative" character. /To give an analogy to the physical scientist, he

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[12] Easton, The Political System, op. cit., p. 269.

[13] Bruner, Jerome, The Process of Education, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1963.

> carries with him a formula/that permits him with varying degrees of accuracy to regenerate the details on which the more easily remembered formula is based.[14]

It is Bruner's thesis that ". . . any idea can be represented honestly and usefully in the thought forms of children of school age, and . . . these first representations can later be made more powerful and precise the most easily by virtue of this early learning."[15] He adds that ". . . by constantly re-examining material taught in elementary and secondary schools for its fundamental character, one is able to narrow the gap between 'advanced' knowledge and 'elementary' knowledge. This, then, can provide a progression from primary school through high school to college . . . " and, indeed, well beyond.[16] He points out that "learning should not only take us somewhere; it should allow us later to go further more easily."[17]

The idea of structure is basic to Bruner's thesis. If a social discipline has a basic structure or conceptual unity (and specialists are convinced that most of the social disciplines do), then it can be presented at any grade level with progressive degrees of sophistication. The governing process is essentially a structure for political science, thus enabling the fundamental character and concepts of political science to be presented in a structured and spiraling manner.

Furthermore, the model of the governing process permits the structure of political science to be presented in a visual manner. Bruner makes this point:

> With respect . . . to the education of the perceptual-imaginal capacities, I can suggest at least one direction to travel. It is in the training of subtle spatial imagery. I have recently been struck by the increased visual power and subtlety of students exposed to courses in visual design -- all differently designed and with different objectives in view. . . . My colleagues Gerald Holton and Edward Purcell have been experimenting with instruction in visual pattern as a mode of increasing the visualizing sublety of concentrators in

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[14] Ibid., p. 24.

[15] Ibid., p. 33.

[16] Ibid., p. 25.

[17] Ibid., p. 17.

> physics -- visual sublety and capacity to represent events visually and non-mentrically. I do not think that we have begun to scratch the surface of training in visualization -- whether related to the arts, to science, or simply to the pleasures of viewing our environments more richly.[18]

This is by no means saying that the entire structure and substance of political science can be conveyed to the learner by drawing boxes and arrows. The flow of people, politics, and power can be visually presented, in an elemental manner, however, thus giving the learner some grasp of the essentials of the components, their relationships with each other, and the feeling of action and dynamism implicit and explicit in political science. The uses to which the visual presentation of the governing process can be put in both teaching and learning are endless.

The Governing Process and Education

It may be of value to mention several pedagogical aspects of the governing process which have been employed in classrooms from the elementary grades to the graduate level of education. In the first place, the process approach with its accompanying structure for political science and visual design can assist the learner in relating his daily exposure to the realities of political science with his formal education in the discipline. The learner, through radio, television, the press, and other media, is constantly exposed to many and varied aspects of the process of governing. The structure of the governing process can thus provide a mental framework for relating the realities of politics and governing to the basic components of the governing process discussed above. Works such as White's The Making of the President (1960 and 1964) and case studies in politics and governing can be adapted to the governing process framework. In brief, the process approach and its polity structure can provide a meaningful link between the in-school educational process and environmental political realities.

Second, there are countless ways in which the governing process design can be used to encourage student participation in the learning process. Experience has shown that once the learner acquires the fundamentals of the process and its components, he can work out the governing process of all kinds of politics by drawing upon data and statistics found in encyclopedias and almanacs, Open-ended questions can be constructed which the student can seek to resolve through various combinations of the process structure and relevant data. Or, the student can be called to adapt the process of all kinds of case studies and material drawn from the press or other media. The process approach thus provides a learning tool which can help to make political science more vibrant, exciting, and real.

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[18] Bruner, "Education as Social Invention." The Journal of Social Issues, July 1964, p. 30.

In the third place, the process approach and structure can be used in comparing politics and examining their similarities and differences. The structure can be applied to the United States and the Soviet Union, and data can be collected on the fundamental components which can give the student a grasp of how the governing processes of these two polities function and where parallels can be drawn. This procedure can be applied to the comparative study of towns, cities, counties, and states as well.

It might also be added that many other social disciplines can (and should) be related to the governing process design. What is the relationship between official policy and economic requirements of Japan? What are the cultural attributes of Iran, and how do they affect other aspects of the governing process in that polity? What are the psychological dimensions of the governed and officials in France, especially one leading official? What were the historical factors that have shaped the governing process in Communist China today? What is the relationship between the size, location, and topography of Poland and its interpretation of the requisites of national security and well-being?

The process approach to political science, in stressing currents of flow and change, in demonstrating the manifold relationships between and among the essential components of governing, and in relating the role and impact of official policy to the demands and expectations of the governed, has been of distinct value in political science education at many levels. It relates the enduring elements of the polity to action and motion, as the governed think and act politically, as the machinery of political process runs fast or slowly, as officials make decisions, and as they administer and apply policy within the polity and in relations with other polities. The significant aspect of the governing process is that process itself really never ends, and the learner who understands this, lives with it, and equips himself to do something about it is one who can better affect change within and among polities. Whether this might be change for better or for worse involves judgments of values which are neither implicit nor explicit in the governing process framework.

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